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The Week.

THE substance of the testimony reported the past week from the Reconstruction Committee is, that there is very little natural, unfeigned loyalty at the South; that there are even secret organizations to obstruct the acts of Government; that it is not yet safe to withdraw the troops from any of the seceded States, nor can a time for this withdrawal be confidently set. On the other hand, some progress was admitted, and Gens. Fisk and Thomas thought the loyal spirit in Tennessee would be fostered by the re-admission of that State. Gens. Grierson and Saxton agreed in the belief that at one time, immediately after the collapse of the rebellion, the Southern people would have submitted to any conditions, but that the lenient policy afterwards pursued towards them had encouraged them to one demand after another. Hon. John Covode recalled what he could of the report he had submitted to the President, but which never saw the light. It was by no means complimentary to the condition of Louisiana or the animus of Gov. Wells.

WITH few exceptions—so few as to be relatively insignificant—the press of the country has sided with Congress in the issue raised by the President. The local elections have even exhibited accessions to the Republican ranks, and the resolutions of the State Republican Convention at Harrisburg, last week, may convince the President, if he is open to conviction, that Pennsylvania at home, whatever may be said of her at the Capital, is game that he cannot afford to despise. True, his great defection was not alluded to—he was simply entreated to stand firmly by the loyal masses who put him into office; but a resolution expressing hope and confidence that he would do so was voted down, the moral obligation to protect the freedmen affirmed, and the Hon. Mr. Cowan called upon to resign the seat in the Senate which he had so unfaithfully filled. There could scarcely be a stronger statement of the position of Congress than this: “that the most imperative duty of the present is to gather the legitimate fruits of the war,” and “that failure in these great duties would be scarcely less criminal than would have been an acquiescence in secession.” Gen. Geary, we believe, is well qualified to be the nominee of such platform.

MR. BLAINE's amendment has been defeated in the Senate by a majority of three, but it is to be reconsidered to-day. Mr. Sumner voted with the majority, having made last week an able and elaborate

onslaught on the measure. We discussed the amendment some weeks ago, and have nothing further to say about its merits. The *Tribune* denounces Mr. Sumner for his course “in helping the Copperheads;” but we trust Mr. Sumner does not care whom he helps or who is helping him as long as the object he has in view is the right one. We have had nearly enough of the practice of frightening people from saying or doing certain things lest certain rascals should rejoice over it. Mr. Blaine's amendment would be a very good thing if it were, as the *Tribune* thinks it would be, a stepping-stone to something better. But to assume that it would be, is to beg the question, and begging the question is now, we regret to say, a very common trick in political discussion. What we fear is, that the amendment would be considered by both North and South a final settlement, and that it would furnish the South with a strong inducement for improving the blacks off the face of the earth. What we hope is, that by waiting and agitating we shall get something better.

IN another paragraph directed against Mr. Sumner's speech on the Blaine amendment, the *Tribune* pronounces his assertion that the amendment was a license or authority to disfranchise, to be “just as true and reasonable as if he had argued that a legal penalty of thirty lashes or three months' imprisonment for petty larceny is a license to steal.” This is a curious little fallacy. The amendment would be, if adopted, not perhaps an “authority” to disfranchise, but a recognition of the right of a State to do so, if it pleased. The registry law of this State denies a man the right to vote unless he registers himself a certain number of days before election; this is a legal recognition, however, of his right to abstain from voting if he chooses. When the law attaches conditions to the exercise of any right, it acknowledges that people are not bound to fulfil them, and the creation of the conditions is not a penalty, any more than the refusal of a county clerk to give a certified copy of a paper without receiving his legal fees, is a penalty.

IT is impossible not to be amused with the manner in which Thaddeus Stevens has disposed of the President's speech, but we think there are few men who care much for the good name of the country who have not perused the report of the proceedings in the House on Saturday with “smiles that might as well be tears.” The reading by the Clerk, at Mr. Stevens's request, and with his implied approval, of the article on Mr. Johnson from the *World* of March 7, 1865, probably one of the most disgusting pieces of billingsgate to which any journal ever descended, was, there is no denying it, a painful incident. No matter what Mr. Johnson may do or say, he is our President, and his shame is our shame, a fact which people in the excitement of party contests are apt to forget. Our quarrels with him are, in some sense, family quarrels, and the less they are exposed to the public gaze the better. It is perfectly proper that a man should be shocked and disgusted by seeing his father drunk in the streets, but the diversion of following him to jeer at him and make a sport of his staggering gait and thick utterance were better left to others.

THE President seems to be making a general jail delivery. The Associated Press despatches announce that in one day last week he pardoned two postmasters who had robbed the mails and a New Jersey counterfeiter of fractional currency. We suppose the good work will go on, and each week will see a few desperate characters released from the restraints of prison to make one more effort after the better life. We suggest as a means of saving time and expense—the subject is an important one—that all persons indicted for crimes before the Federal

courts file their applications for pardon before trial. The President can then look into their cases, and perhaps release them without subjecting them to the trouble and mortification of going before a jury. The annoyance given at present to mail robbers and forgers by legal formalities is very great, and, in endeavoring to relieve them, the President only shows how far he rises above the vulgar prejudices of his time.

WE print in another column the report of the Reconstruction Committee recommending the re-admission of Tennessee. Messrs. Boutwell and Washburne oppose the measure, unless the suffrage may be shared by loyal citizens without distinction of color. They argue forcibly against the impolicy of committing the government of a State to a minority—in the present instance, three-eighths of the population—when it is certain that it cannot long nor effectively be so administered against the spirit of our institutions. Loyal representatives, they add, are not of so much consequence as a permanently loyal constituency, which cannot be had without including the negroes, and then may soon safely absorb even the lesser grades of rebels. Their position is completely justified by the present disorganized state of Tennessee. Spite of rebel disfranchisement, a faction of the Legislature have broken up that body by absenting themselves from its sessions, and Governor Brownlow has been obliged to order new elections to keep the machinery of government from stopping.

GOVERNOR HUMPHREYS, of Mississippi, who was pardoned, but ought not to have been, for the express purpose of qualifying him for the position of governor of Mississippi, has done what in him lies ever since his accession to office to keep alive the feeling of hostility to the Government. He is now engaged in promoting a movement for the collection and preservation of the records of the Confederate army—a perfectly harmless and even proper work in itself, provided it be done in a proper spirit—but when he calls for the preservation of documents or “details of robberies, conflagration, and vandalism,” “to be transmitted to posterity in vindication of the truth of history and the rectitude of our (the Confederate) cause,” and all this is in a letter signed by him as governor and dated from the “executive office,” he is guilty of abusing his office, and abusing the confidence which has enabled him to fill it. Men like Humphreys, who were leaders of the rebellion, ought to have been left in the background for many a year to come, and, whatever plan of reconstruction be now adopted, we have no hesitation in saying that Mr. Johnson’s qualifying him for the governorship was at least a great mistake. The letter before us is an insult to the Government, an insult to our army, an insult to the loyal men of the North, and to ask us to believe that Mississippi or any other State lately in rebellion can be really and truly restored to the Union under the auspices and direction of men like Humphreys is an insult to the common sense of those who shed their blood and spent their money in trying to rob him of his powers of mischief. We are in favor of magnanimity, of oblivion, of conciliation, of forbearance, of everything that can in reason be demanded of us; but we are not in favor of putting rebels into high office to pass their leisure hours in keeping alive the spirit of rebellion.

Gov. ORR, of South Carolina, has written concerning the attractions which that State holds out to foreign emigrants, to the secretary of the German society of this city. He speaks of the general desire there for foreign immigration, and says that since the abolition of slavery no difficulty is found in purchasing lands of good quality and in quantities to suit. He believes no such auspicious time as the present for acquiring real estate will ever occur again. He cites the example of very prosperous German settlements before the war—one, a colony of 4,000, in what he calls the third division of the State, running up to the mountains and bounded by North Carolina and Georgia, which produces all the cereals, beef and pork, some cotton, and fruits, and abounds in water power. The governor especially invites mechanics with their tools, remarking that every article of furniture in his own parlor, and most of it in his house, was manufactured in New York, while all the noble woods are plentiful in his immediate vicinity. We hope our German friends will take the governor at his word, but,

as we have once before had occasion to urge, we hope they will go on *making*.

GEN. POPE has issued instructions to the commanders of military posts on the great plains in regard to the regulations which they are to exact of all the emigrant trains that shall pass from one to the other during the present season. If these regulations are only observed, the trains will be comparatively safe; but the experience has hitherto been that the military organization with which they set out is rarely kept up, and the hostile attacks of the Indians find them fatally unprepared for resistance.

THE agitation about the eight-hour movement, still kept up by the working-men and the political demagogues who prey on their ignorance of economical laws, is producing its legitimate effect in frightening builders and increasing the rent and price of houses. Unhappily, none will suffer from this so much as the working-men themselves, especially in the large cities, where they suffer enough already. It needs but a very little reflection to perceive that there is no class on which any diminution in production bears so heavily as on those who live by daily wages, for none is separated from positive privation by so narrow a margin. The interest of all working-men is to be served not by finding them means to escape work, but by finding means of securing them a larger share of the results of work. We suppose, however, that in this, as in many other things, wisdom must be learned by bitter experience. In the meantime, anybody who publicly tells the truth about the matter must expect to be denounced as the working-man’s enemy—an “aristocrat” and “heartless” political economist. Political economy, in the minds of some people, is a plan devised by the enemies of the human race for the confusion of the poor.

THE excitement in Canada about the Fenians continues to increase rather than diminish. The total collapse of the Fenian movement in Ireland, and the consequent failure of the O’Mahony policy, having given a vigorous impulse to the Sweeney plan of invading Canada. The servant-girls are buying up the bonds of the Irish Republic freely, and, lest there should be any deficiency in the supply, bands of counterfeiters have gone to work to print them, and are producing them in great quantity. The swindle is probably the greatest in history. Some Irishmen of influence and common sense ought to try and expose it for the sake of the poor. There were 1,500,000 Irish men, women, and children in the United States in 1860; and if we suppose that there are now 2,000,000, we shall probably be over the mark. Of these, at the outside, only one-fourth are able-bodied men; and all are in the poorest ranks of life. Suppose all the men to volunteer and form an organized army, with materiel, artillery, cavalry, and other requisites, its expenses would be about a million of dollars a day. Where is it to come from? Could the cooks and washerwomen support it? The attempt of this handful of poor men and women living in a foreign country to engage in an armed conflict with a first-class power 3,000 miles away is, perhaps, the most discouraging incident in the history of the Irish race. The movement against Canada will probably result in some plunder and a little bloodshed.

M. THIERS delivered a remarkable speech in the Corps Législatif on the 26th ult., the question under discussion being the proposed address in response to the Emperor. He demanded personal liberty and security, freedom of the press and of elections, and the responsibility of ministers; these as means to “national sovereignty,” or “the will of the country directing the government.” He reviewed the foreign and domestic policy of the Second Empire, to show how different it would probably have been if the country had been consulted in regard to it. The reign of Louis XIV. was cited as evidence that the grandest administrative genius cannot dispense with political liberty. He insisted that there was no genuine liberty but that which puts a nation in possession of its destinies, and named England and America as incontestably free because they enjoy this possession, though the one is a monarchy and the other a republic.

THE appearance of the Empress Eugénie at a masked ball in the character of Marie Antoinette revives the rumor that she has been engaged on a life of that unfortunate queen. The Emperor himself seems emulous of Louis XV. Having heard Thérèse sing at Gen. Fleury's, he sends her a bracelet worth three thousand francs.

PRUSSIA still maintains an ominous attitude towards Austria and pursues its high-handed policy at home. The Minister of State returned to the Chamber its resolutions concerning Lauenburg and the decision of the supreme court, as transcending its powers; and on the 23d ult. the King dissolved the Diet, on the ground of the antagonistic spirit of the lower House. A public meeting had previously been called in Berlin, and, after having been once dispersed by the police, voted an address of sympathy and support to the Chamber, promising to share its perils in defence of the constitution. But for the apathy of the great body of the Prussian people, there might be some hope from the present crisis.

THE Spanish Red-book has stirred up the Roman question afresh, on the heels of the manly letter of Gen. La Marmora. In May last, according to the Spanish minister at Vienna, France made overtures to Austria to favor the levy of a legion to reinforce the Papal army, in view of the now proximate evacuation of Rome. But Austria declined to entertain the proposition unless France would promise the volunteers material assistance in case of need. A difference was also alleged to exist between the French Emperor and Drouyn de Lhuys, the former wishing to have the French element predominate in the foreign legion. His organs, since the exposure, have made haste to deny that the proposition to Austria was anything more than an accommodation to the Holy See, or that the French contingent was intended to retain its national character and relations. Cardinal Antonelli now orders the suspension of recruiting, as the Papal ranks are full.

THE city of Florence having sent Victor Hugo the medal struck to commemorate the Dante centenary, he accepts the honor in the name of France. "There is," he says, "in me, as in all Frenchmen, a little of the soul of France; and this soul wishes light, progress, peace, and liberty, and the greatness of every people; and the soul of Italy is its sister."

AUSTRIA has voluntarily extended to Italy, through the mediation of France, the advantages of trade now enjoyed by the most favored nation having intercourse with the empire. This concession to Italian unity comes in good time to the rescue of M. Scialoja and his financial policy; but it has not yet been officially reciprocated.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, March 10, 1866.

THE conclusive legislation of the week has been the defeat, in the Senate, of the proposed constitutional amendment fixing the basis of representation, which passed the House some weeks ago. This defeat was accomplished by the combination of five "radical" senators (Messrs. Brown, Henderson, Pomeroy, Sumner, and Yates) with six "conservative" senators, elected as Republicans, whose combined vote, added to the regular Democratic strength, prevented the adoption of the amendment by the required constitutional majority of two-thirds. Now that all the various pet propositions of the radical senators are defeated by so decisive a majority, it becomes manifest that the present Congress, at least, is not ripe for universal suffrage. It also appears that not only these gentlemen, but a large number who voted with the majority for the proposed amendment of the House, will have to surrender their prejudices, and go for some proposition which can command a two-thirds vote, or else do worse by leaving "the Constitution as it is, and the Union as it was," with three-fifths of the late Southern slaves represented by reconstructed rebels in Congress. In this dilemma, the amendment which seems likely to unite the most suffrages in its favor is that proposed by Mr. Schenck in the House and by Mr. Doolittle (in a slightly modified form) in the Senate. This bases representation upon the number of actual legal voters under the existing laws of each

State, and, while it takes away from the South her existing unequal privilege, supplies a motive to her to extend the franchise to all her citizens. On the other hand, it is partially unjust to New England, favoring the new States where the voting population is in the ascendancy, at the expense of the older ones, where women and children preponderate. It also disfranchises, as a basis of representation, large bodies of unnaturalized foreigners in New York and elsewhere. Still, it is much more likely to be carried than any other of the proposed schemes for modifying the fundamental law.

The singular anomaly was presented on Monday of a communication from the present governor of North Carolina being received and printed without objection by the Senate, while the House, on the same day, refused to receive the paper by the astonishing vote of 100 yeas to 38 nays. If there was inadvertence in the reception of the paper by the Senate, it being presented by its presiding officer while senators were too busily engaged to notice it, it might certainly have been corrected at a later period. Does the ground on which its reception was objected to by Mr. Thaddeus Stevens, viz., "it is perfectly well known that we do not recognize the State government of North Carolina," as followed by the House in the very strong vote refusing to receive it, indicate a standard of political virtue so far superior to that of the Senate?

The continued postponement of matters relating to finance and revenue, so vitally important to the welfare of the people, in order to occupy nearly the whole session of each day in speeches upon reconstruction which are productive of no practical result, is much to be lamented. The only possible excuse for this—and it is a very poor one—is that, in pursuing such a course, this Congress only follows in the footsteps of all its predecessors.

DIARY.

Monday, March 5, 1866.—In the Senate, numerous petitions were presented asking for equality of rights and security against renewed attempts at secession. A communication from the governor of North Carolina, enclosing resolutions of the Legislature of that State accepting lands donated by Congress for support of agricultural colleges by act of July 2, 1862, was received and laid on the table. Mr. Brown offered a bill to fix eight hours' labor as a day's work in all cases of laborers employed by the Government of the United States. Referred. Mr. Wilson offered a joint resolution to provide for the representation in Congress, and resumption of practical relations to the United States, of the States lately in rebellion. Referred. The House joint resolution proposing a constitutional amendment to regulate the basis of representation was discussed by Mr. Pomeroy, who hoped it would be adopted, but argued that Congress has the power and should exercise it, under the constitutional amendment abolishing slavery, to confer the elective franchise upon the freedmen. An appropriation of \$15,000 to Miss Clara Barton for expenditures by her in discovering missing soldiers was passed. Also, a bill to enlarge the Winnebago Indian reservation.

In the House, a resolution that fifty millions of bonds, to be issued by the Mexican republic, be guaranteed by the Government of the U. S., was referred to the Committee on Foreign Affairs—ayes, 64; nays, 64—by the casting vote of the Speaker. A resolution to incorporate the National Association to educate colored men for the Christian ministry was referred. Also referred, a resolution to add fifty per cent. to the existing tariff on imported goods, for one hundred and fifty days, or until Congress shall amend the revenue system. The Joint Committee upon the condition of the late rebel States made a report, embracing testimony and other papers relating to Tennessee; also a joint resolution as follows: "Resolved, by the Senate and House of Representatives in Congress assembled, That whereas, the people of Tennessee have made known to Congress their desire that the constitutional relations heretofore existing between them and the United States may be fully re-established, and did, on the 23d day of February, 1865, by a large popular vote, adopt and ratify a constitution of a government republican in form, and not inconsistent with the Constitution and laws of the United States, and a State government has been organized under provisions thereof, which said provisions and laws, passed in pursuance thereof, proclaim and denote loyalty to the Union; and, whereas, the people of Tennessee are found to be in a condition to exercise the functions of a State within this Union, and can only exercise the same by the consent of the law-making power of the United States; therefore, the State of Tennessee is hereby declared to be one of the United States of America, on an equal footing with the other States, on the express condition that the people of Tennessee will maintain and enforce, in good faith, their existing constitution and laws, excluding those who have been engaged in rebellion against the United States from the exercise of the elective franchise for the period of time therein provided for, and shall exclude the same persons, for the like respective periods of time, from eligibility to office, and the State of Tennessee shall never assume or pay any debt or obligation contracted or incurred in aid of the late rebellion, nor shall said State ever, in any manner, claim from the United States, or make any allowance or compensation for, slaves emancipated or liberated in any way whatever; which condition shall be ratified by the Legislature of Tennessee, or the people thereof, as the Legislature may direct, before this act shall take effect." Recommended, to be called up, at the pleasure of the committee, next week. A communication from Governor Worth, of North Carolina, relating to lands donated by Congress for agricultural colleges, was read by order of the Speaker, to whom it was addressed, whereupon Mr. Stevens objected to the reception of the paper, on the ground that Congress does not recognize the State government of North Carolina. The House voted, by yeas and nays, on the question of receiving

communication, and refused to receive it—yeas, 38; nays, 100. Mr. Stevens offered a resolution calling upon the President to inform the House how many pardons he has issued to rebels, with their names; how much confiscated property has been restored to these parties, and how much abandoned property has been taken away from freedmen and restored to returning rebels, and by whose order. Adopted. The bill making appropriations for the U. S. Military Academy was considered and amended. Mr. Schenck moved a proviso that no money be paid for any cadet from the States late in rebellion appointed after January 1, 1865, until such State shall be restored to its original relations to the Union by act of Congress. Adopted—yeas, 89; nays, 30. The bill was then passed. The army appropriation bill was taken up and passed, including an amendment prohibiting the payment of any money to the Illinois Central R.R. Co. for transporting the troops, etc., of the Government, and requiring a suit to be entered against the company for moneys already paid on that account, their charter requiring them to perform such service free.

March 6.—In the Senate, a joint resolution was referred providing quarantine regulations to prevent the introduction of cholera. A bill appropriating about seven millions of dollars to reimburse the State of Missouri for money expended in raising militia to suppress the rebellion was passed. Mr. Saulsbury spoke at length in opposition to the proposed constitutional amendment regulating the basis of representation. A message was received from the President transmitting, in response to a call of the Senate, reports of assistant commissioners of the Freedmen's Bureau; also, a large amount of documentary matter relating to the provisional governors of certain States late in rebellion, in compliance with a call of the Senate. House resolution giving the consent of Congress to the transfer of the counties of Berkeley and Jefferson to West Virginia was passed.

In the House, the Joint Committee on Reconstruction reported evidence taken by them on the condition of Arkansas, Mississippi, Alabama, and Georgia. Ordered to be printed. The bill reported by the Ways and Means Committee regulating trade with the British North American provinces was discussed by Messrs. Morrill and others.

March 7.—In the Senate, Mr. Sumner presented a petition from Bishop Hopkins and other American authors praying for an international copyright. Also, a petition from R. S. Mackenzie and others, authors and editors, to the same effect. Referred. On motion of Mr. Wilson, the Judiciary Committee were instructed to report what legislation is necessary to protect army officers from prosecution in civil courts for acts done in discharge of their duty under the Articles of War. The House bill declaring the meaning of the Internal Revenue Act so as to raise a larger revenue from corporations was passed. Mr. Sumner spoke three hours against the proposed constitutional amendment fixing the basis of representation, denouncing it as admitting into the Constitution the idea of inequality of rights, defiling that instrument with a "political obscenity and a disgusting ordure," a "compromise of human rights the most immoral, indecent, and utterly shameful of any in our history." Mr. Doolittle opposed the amendment as capable of being evaded by any State disposed to disfranchise colored men, and advocated an amendment basing representation upon actual voters by State laws. A bill granting lands to aid in the construction of a railroad from Folsom to Placerville, California, was passed.

In the House, Mr. Eliot offered a bill to continue in force the Freedmen's Bureau. Referred. A bill to reimburse Pennsylvania for moneys advanced to the Government for war purposes was made a special order for March 14. The bill which passed the Senate to reimburse Missouri was referred. Mr. Washburne, from the Joint Committee on Reconstruction, submitted testimony on the condition of Louisiana, Texas, and Florida. Ordered to be printed. Resolutions of the Legislative Assembly of New Mexico in favor of a State government for that territory were received and referred. The bill to regulate trade with the British North American provinces was opposed by Messrs. Kelley, Wentworth, Spalding, Phelps, and Blaine, and advocated by Mr. Brooks.

March 8.—In the Senate, Mr. Poland offered a constitutional amendment providing that no person ever engaged in rebellion shall exercise the elective franchise or hold office under the authority of the United States or of any State. Referred. Mr. Henderson offered resolutions declaring that Congress alone can decide whether the causes of the rebellion are removed; that the States lately in rebellion are without a republican form of government; that the people who abjured their allegiance to the Federal Government have become alienated and denationalized; and that the Union is not restored until State governments republican in form, and not excluding nearly one-half their entire people, are established and recognized by the Federal Government. The joint resolution, proposing to amend the Constitution as to the basis of representation, was advocated by Mr. Wilson.

In the House, Mr. Boutwell presented a minority report from the Joint Committee on Reconstruction in the case of Tennessee. The Senate bill to reimburse Miss Clara Barton for moneys expended in discovering missing soldiers was passed. The bill providing that all railways shall have equal privileges in transporting passengers, etc., from State to State, was discussed and laid over. A bill to reduce the number of judges of the United States Supreme Court from ten to nine, and to re-organize the distribution of their circuits, was passed. The Senate bill, to restrict the expense of collection of soldiers' claims against the Government to ten dollars, was discussed and re-committed. The Senate bill, to protect all citizens in their civil rights, was discussed by Mr. Boutwell in its favor, and by Messrs. Raymond, Delano, and Kerr against it.

March 9.—In the Senate, petitions were presented praying for the abolition of all distinctions as to color or race. The bill to extend time for withdrawal of imported goods from bonded warehouses came up on a motion to reconsider its passage. Mr. Sprague made a speech against it. The Senate proceeded to the final consideration of the House constitutional amendment fixing the basis of representation. Mr. Fessenden replied to Mr. Sumner's argument, which he characterized as intolerant, unfair, untenable, and impracticable. After a running debate between several senators, the vote was first taken upon Mr. Henderson's substitute, proposed by him as a constitutional amendment, viz.: "No State, in prescribing the qualifications requisite for electors therein, shall discriminate against any person on account of color or race." The amendment was lost—yeas, 10; nays, 37. The question was then taken on Mr. Sumner's substitute, which was simply a joint resolution providing "there shall be no oligarchy,

aristocracy, caste, or monopoly invested with peculiar privileges, and no denial of rights, civil or political, on account of color or race, anywhere within the United States." This was lost—yeas, 8; nays, 39. The vote was taken on Mr. Yates's amendment providing that no State shall make or enforce any distinction between citizens of the United States on account of race or color, and that all citizens shall hereafter be protected in the exercise of all civil and political rights, including the right of suffrage. Lost—yeas, 7; nays, 38. The original amendment, as reported by the Joint Committee of Fifteen, was reported as follows: "ARTICLE.—Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed: *Provided*, That whenever the elective franchise shall be denied or abridged in any State on account of race or color, all persons therein of such race or color shall be excluded from the basis of representation." The question being taken, there were yeas, 25; nays, 22. Two-thirds not having voted for the same, it was defeated. The question recurred, on a motion to reconsider, upon Mr. Doolittle's substitute, basing representation upon actual voters in each State. On motion of Mr. Fessenden this was postponed to March 15. Adjourned to March 13.

In the House, the civil rights bill was further debated by Messrs. Shellabarger and Wilson in its favor, and Bingham and Latham against it. The question was taken on a motion of Mr. Bingham to recommit the bill so as to amend by striking out all the penal provisions, and also the clause prohibiting States from discriminating between citizens. Lost—yeas, 37; nays, 113. The question recurred on a motion to recommit the bill without instructions, which was carried—yeas, 89; nays, 70. The bill to regulate trade with British North America was further discussed and amended.

March 10.—The Senate was not in session. In the House, speeches on the state of the Union were made by Messrs. Orth, Stevens, Holmes, Goodyear, and Ashley, of Nevada. Adjourned to March 12.

THE FREEDMEN.

CAPT. C. B. RICHARDSON, sub-assistant commissioner of "Altamaha District, Ga., reports the general condition of all classes in that quarter to be reasonably satisfactory. The freedmen are all at work under Government contracts, showing nothing of the laziness predicted by the white people before Christmas. The latter, while confessing their error in this regard, confidently prophesy that the romance of industry will be worn off by hot weather, and the cotton crop prove a failure. Their prejudice against the education of the colored people is still strong. Recently, on hearing that an adult night-school was in operation, they sought to break it up by feigning another use for the building. The commissioner examined the lease, which was in writing, and found that the colored people were entitled to hold meetings there throughout the year, and he sustained their occupancy, whether for educational or other purposes. "It is impossible for any people to be more earnest and patient in obtaining knowledge than the colored people here. They also exhibit an anxiety and watchfulness unparalleled in their efforts not to be offensive towards their former masters."

—The February report of the Superintendent of Schools for the Department of Washington shows the number of colored schools to be 43, and of pupils 4,294, more than three-fourths of whom can read. In Alexandria there are 1,200.

—The Freedmen's Savings Bank is said to have received within a year over a million of dollars from the negroes of the country. It has twenty-nine branches—most of them at the South. In Washington alone the deposits amounted to upwards of five thousand dollars.

—It is complained that in Mississippi colored people who are fully able to support their children may have them seized at the request of any white person and bound out, by the probate courts, to white masters, for a small rate of compensation, until they arrive at the age of twenty-one.

—On the 6th inst. an unsuccessful effort was made in the Texas State Convention to base representation in the legislature on the number of free persons in the State. Mr. Degener made a minority report in favor of impartial suffrage, which was sustained by some three or four of his fellow-members.

—So long as the colored man is attainted with inferiority in the eye of the law, he will be exposed to the violence of the brutal, and especially of those whose social position, nominally higher than his, is in imminent danger of finding its just level below him. Out of a thousand instances of probably daily occurrence, the following has been communicated to us by a responsible eye-witness:

"I was waiting at Culpepper C. H. for the train from Gordonsville to Washington City. I was walking up and down the platform, about the time the train was due at Culpepper, when the following scene ensued: A very black negro man said, as he stood a few feet from me, and while three or four white men were standing by him: 'You called me crow when I went along thar.' One of the white men, who held a heavy club in his hand, replied, 'You are a liar.' The negro answered, 'You did call me crow, for I

heard it wid my own years.' The white man said, 'Then I'm a liar, am I?' The negro answered, 'I do n't know what you is; but I heerd you call me crow, and now I'm done wid it.' The white man replied, 'But I'm not done with it.' He then struck the negro several terrible blows with the club, and one blow was so hard that it laid the poor man's scalp quite open and felled him into the railroad track. He continued to beat him when down, and another of the white men who stood near rushed at the poor fellow and kicked him in the head and face. A very old grey-bearded colored man ran up and caught hold of the club, got between the assailant and his victim, and cried, 'Please do n't, master, you will kill him.' The assailant struggled hard to free the club, but the old negro held on, and at last got an opportunity to drag the poor bleeding man off the track. In a few minutes more up came the train. I got on it, and, sick at heart at what I had seen and heard, I was borne away. I could not but feel that the blood I had seen poured out would cry aloud from the earth to God. I could but hear ringing in my very ears the fearful question, 'Shall I not visit for these things, saith the Lord?'

Minor Topics.

WHAT'S in a name? Much, if the name is a title. The common theory of equality is to be a little better than one's neighbors; the practice, to let them see it or feel it in some indirect way. Tattooing and barbaric trappings are out of fashion—even uniforms are not considered as in good taste for everyday use; but a man can wear a title at all hours. The word governor, or judge, or general goes before him like a herald, proclaiming his superiority over non-governors, non-judges, and non-generals. The world does homage, mildly, if you choose, but still agreeably, when it addresses him by his title. Although there is no legal tender act to oblige us to take men for more than they are worth, we are apt to accept them at first sight at the valuation they put upon themselves. To many people it does not much matter what their title is. Captain Owen saw a naked negro potentate on the West Coast who wore for the likeness of a kingly crown a cast-away tin can labelled "concentrated gravy." The monarch had adopted the two unknown words as an additional title of honor. Civilization has not entirely extirpated the savage element in the white people. Very many are willing to stick any feather in their caps without considering too curiously its color or the bird whence it came. After four years of grim war, individuals who have never been under fire may be found sporting militia titles in the faces of men who won the same nominal rank at the risk of their lives.

Akin to this first "infirmity of noble minds" is the love of fine names. A great many persons, who are above their business or their position in life, seem to believe in the efficacy of a practice described by John Quincy Adams in two lines of a squib he let off against Jefferson:

"And if we cannot alter things,
By Jove! we'll change their names, sir."

Smith thinks he has undergone a transformation when he writes it Smythe. A waiting-woman generally gives her daughter some, if not all, of the Carolinas and Wilhelmias of Goldsmith's Miss Skeggs. Silly little girls, who were unfortunately christened Susan or Dolly by their Brown or Jones papas, engrave on their cards Miss Susie H. Brown or Miss Dollie C. Brown, and are happier in consequence. And Brown and Jones, as soon as they have bought and built near Tubby Hook or Dobb's Ferry, try to get the old historical appellations changed to Inwood or Glendale. Fitness and meaning are lost sight of for the sake of a fine name. The English words for everyday occupations are scornfully thrown aside by the aspiring fellows once designated by them. Every shop is a store; costermongers are grocers; peddlers, merchants; haberdashers, furnisurers; dressmakers, modistes; and if you should say "slops" to a "dealer in ready-made clothing" he would knock you down. At first, no doubt, everybody feels bigger and better for their brevet rank; but in time the new words sink down to the real state of things; then, as with paper money when it depreciates, a new issue is required to purchase the same amount of consideration, and the next best word in the vocabulary is seized upon without reference to etymology, so that in the end nothing is gained. When magnificence of phraseology is allied to meanness of fact, the *mésalliance* does not ennoble the fact. A servant is none the less a servant when he is called a "help;" neither his wages nor his social

position is higher. It is really to no purpose that we have raised the score of our daily talk an octave to express this pinchbeck ambition. We speak in superlatives, like women. Nothing can be said simply, and circus play-bills will become the standard of the language, unless we can create a new office: commissioners of philology, whose duty it shall be to seize upon all words and phrases that have strayed and to return them to their original meanings.

The teachers of the generation now undergoing schooling ought to be such commissioners. The infirmity of fine words and of fine writing springs from an uncultivated taste and half an education. There is no subject outside of morals—if indeed it be outside of morals, as it is in a certain sense a violation of truth—on which instruction, line upon line and precept upon precept, is more needed in our schools, than the duty of all to speak and to write simply, to call things by their names, and not to be above their business. But, unfortunately, it looks as if the guards themselves needed a guardian. The gentlemen composing the faculty of the Free Academy seem to be infected with the fashionable epidemic. They have petitioned the Legislature, through Mr. Murphy, to change the name of that institution to the New York College. The reason, it is said, is that they do not like the word academy. The sound does not come up to their ideas of their position. It perhaps suggests village schools, composed of dirty boys in the A, B, C stage of polite learning.

There are two opposite theories respecting the influence of names. One finds expression in the well-worn line, "A rose by any other name will smell as sweet;" the other was emphatically stated by Mr. Shandy when he spoke of a man's being "Nicodemussed into nothing." Our professors are evidently Shandean. They think they are academussed into mere pedagogues.

Words have their vicissitudes of fortune, like men, and in their decline are sometimes put to mean uses. But one would have thought that the word academy might have kept its place, at least with scholars. There is such a flavor of antiquity about it, so many reminiscences of philosophy, of Aristotle, and of Plato, that even dirty little boys ought not to be able to degrade it. And then it actually occupies the highest position in France. Every French author is ambitious of a seat among the illustrious forty who compose the Academy. The word college means in England one of the dozen houses in which the students of a university live, and in the United States, it often means a high school in which a diligent boy can get a good ordinary education. It would seem odd to one not aware of the prevalence of the complaint just mentioned that educated men should prefer college to academy—or that, preferring it, they should not think it rather beneath them to wish to change so well-established a name for so childish a reason. Nevertheless, if academy is not good enough for citizens of this great country, and if the professors think they will be happier and enjoy more respect from the world if the scene of their labors is re-named college, the State will probably humor them in spite of common sense. What they ask for is comparatively harmless and costs nothing. It is rarely that petitioners are willing to let the legislature off so cheaply.

Another difficulty will soon present itself. "Professor" is losing caste rapidly. There are professors of chiropody and of palmistry; Professor Anderson amuses the public with his tricks, and Professor Hanlon demonstrates the flying trapeze. The title will soon be unworthy of the dignity of the teachers of youth. To what new appellation will they be driven? Instructor, tutor, schoolmaster, preceptor, pedagogue are all old and objectionable. They will have to apply for a name to those ingenious neologists, the inventors of cosmetics; or else adopt the plan recommended by Lakanal, in his report on education to the French convention—of wearing around their necks a medal with the inscription: "Tout instructeur est un père." Louis Blanc, in his "History of Ten Years," speaks with enthusiasm of the "glorious age" that gave birth to such noble ideas. We may live to see them extending to the "setting sun."

The special attention of the reader is directed to the Financial Review on another page. Its place among the advertisements is by no means significant of its value, but is resorted to only that we may obtain the latest intelligence of the market.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION should be addressed to the Editor.

THE POLITICAL SITUATION FROM A COMMERCIAL STAND-POINT.

AN effort is being made in some quarters to diffuse the impression that the mercantile world is interested in a peculiar degree in having Congress give way to the President, in order that, the political future being settled, business men may make their calculations with a fair certainty of being able to carry them out. There is no doubt that it is most important for the sake of our national as well as other interests that there should be speedily a settlement of some kind; but that the adoption of the President's policy "pure and simple" by Congress would be the best settlement, or would be any settlement at all, is by no means certain. There is always a tendency amongst business men in every community to incline in favor of whatever arrangement of political difficulties seems to promise quiet soonest, and they are apt to be unwilling to trouble themselves about remote results. There is always, too, a good deal of the speculative spirit in the relations between commerce and politics. Let the political sky be ever so cloudy, if the danger is not imminent, each merchant or banker is apt to hope that he will escape before the storm bursts, and goes to work diligently not to provide shelter but to make the most of the sunshine. Everybody remembers the way in which politicians both North and South played upon this feeling before the war. Southern agitators rarely held out much hope that the Union could be permanently maintained. All that they said was, that its dissolution might be postponed by the election of this or that man, or the adoption of this or that compromise, and a large part of the commercial world grasped eagerly at these shreds of hope and did whatever was required of them. It abused the abolitionists, toadied everybody and everything Southern, eschewed anti-slavery discussions, edited the Bible and prayer-book and religious tracts in a Southern sense, subscribed money *ad libitum* to carry elections for Southern purposes, and, it must be confessed, continued to do, during the most troubled years of the anti-slavery controversy, a roaring trade. Everybody, probably, who sold goods to Southern dealers, and listened with a bland countenance to abuse of his neighbors while he pocketed the proceeds, flattered himself that he would be able to get out of the arena before the crash came, and he was therefore ready for anything which promised to defer it if only for a little while.

But we believe there are few sensible men at the North who are not now sensible that the whole policy pursued by the business men of this country during the twenty years preceding the war was a gigantic mistake, not simply in a moral or political but in a business point of view. It encouraged the South to persevere in a course which made the final catastrophe unavoidable. Nothing did more to encourage disunionists in their course than the attitude of the great cities of the North, the sympathy or indulgence which the Toombses and Wigfalls and Yanceys received from our business circles, and the visible tremor which they were able to send through the counting-houses by their threats and boasts. They were, in fact, so deluded by the subserviency of the commercial world of the North that they counted on its indifference to the overthrow of the Government, and its refusal to lend money for its support, as absolutely certain, and made them the basis of their plan of action. And the impression created by this timidity and time-serving was not confined to the South. It was firmly believed on nearly every exchange in Europe, after Mr. Lincoln issued his first call for troops, that the war would come to an end in three months for want of funds, and the notion that New York bankers would make a loan to the Treasury was treated with derision. The result has been the loss to the country of some thousands of millions in hard cash, and of an amount incalculably greater in the suspension of trade and industry and the destruction of property throughout the South during the four years of hostilities. So that the system of compromise, of half settle-

ments, makeshifts resorted to for the purpose of putting off the evil day, was, commercially considered, a tremendous blunder.

We trust we shall not witness a repetition of this mistake. We are not now arguing in favor either of the President's plan or that of Congress. What we ask is that, in considering any plan, business men will look beyond immediate results, and will not settle down upon any scheme that seems likely to promise tranquillity or a good crop of cotton this year or next. We must now look much further into the future than we ever did or could look before, much further than the founders of the government could look, and with a confidence, too, which they were very far from feeling. So that it is our duty to weigh well what we do, and whatever we do ought to be done not for the next five years, but for all time. Our business is not simply to wipe out the traces of the war in the shortest possible period, but to see that no discordant elements are left in American society to produce in due course another convulsion. No state of things, it ought to be remembered, is good for business purposes that is not a natural state of things. No state of things in which any large class of the community is laboring under a sense of wrong or injustice can ever have that fixity and certainty which is necessary to commercial prosperity over a long series of years, and prosperity that does not extend over a long series of years is apt not to be prosperity after all. If we deduct from the gains of the years of compromise the losses sustained by the war, we shall find a very small balance remaining to our credit. Moreover, inconsiderate action now will be irreversible. Whether the President have his or Congress have its way, whatever is done now will probably fix our fate. So that there can hardly be too much said in favor of deliberation and caution. No man, whatever his opinions may be now as to the way in which the South should be recognized, can object to delay. For no damage that can possibly be done by keeping the South waiting could possibly equal the damage that would be done by a mistake in the conditions imposed upon her for her readmission.

CITY YOUNG MEN.

It is now nearly fifty years since Sismondi was driven by what he saw in all European countries of the increased separation between the rich and poor, and of the increased selfishness infused by the spirit of individualism—the most marked feature of modern civilization—into all the relations of life, to compose his "New Principles of Political Economy." In that work he dwells in eloquent terms on the evils of the general abandonment of attempts to organize labor, of the decay of all feeling of union or sympathy between employers and employed, and of the isolation produced by competition, and, though he does not suggest any remedy, he leaves on the mind of his readers a tolerably dismal impression of the state and drift of modern society. If he had lived until our time we are afraid he would have found ten reasons for the one which then existed for adhering to his conclusions. Seen from his point of view, the world has certainly not been improving since he wrote. Even here in America, the vices which are eating the heart out of European society are assailing us with almost as great force as they have ever displayed there. In all our great cities the separation between capitalists and those whom capitalists employ goes on steadily; the links that bind the poor to the rich every day become weaker and weaker; the influences which drive masters and servants, merchants and clerks, further apart, every day become stronger and stronger. We doubt, in fact, if there is at this moment any other city in the world in which there is less friendly communication between the poor and rich. The two classes rarely worship at the same altar, and have very seldom even that feeble sympathy which grows out of having lived long together in the same place. Wealth, too, has here achieved what feudalism in its best days was never able to accomplish, in monopolizing all the good churches and good preachers. It was one of the glories of the Middle Ages that on the floor of the splendid piles which they built for the worship of God, and which to this hour no man, let his creed be what it may, ever enters without emotion, all were equal and all were at home. The lord and the serf knelt side by side on the same pavement, were thrilled by the same eloquence, softened by the same music,

joined in the same prayers, and were reminded by every sight and sound of their community of origin and of destiny. And in all the old countries in which the abuse, as we consider it, of an established church is still kept up, this great tradition of the nothingness of human distinctions is kept alive by the fact that all churches are public property and all ministers agents of the state. The humblest *ouvrier* in Paris can, if he pleases, enjoy as much of all the eloquence the church can supply as the daintiest lady of the court. Notre Dame and St. Sulpice are as much his churches as those of the Duc de Mouchy; and the commonest London "cad" has a common-law right to attend the parish church.

There is perhaps nothing which illustrates more fully the dangers of the course on which we are drifting than the social condition of the young men in this city, as revealed in a "memorandum" which lies before us, prepared by some members of the Young Men's Christian Association. Of this body, or of its mode of working, or of the success which attends its efforts, we know but little from personal observation; but the figures it has collected here are eloquent beyond measure, and the aims it has in view in preparing this document certainly belong to the very highest sphere of Christian usefulness. It is estimated that there are in this city 111,091 young men between the ages of 15 and 30. Of these probably more than one-third are newcomers, who have drifted here from all parts of the country and of the world. They have no homes, in most instances not even rooms to themselves, and have to depend for all recreation, for even the means of securing light and heat during the long winter evenings, upon "saloons" and theatres. The circumstances which contribute most to the misery of their condition are thus enumerated in the "memorandum":

- (a) Many are utter strangers from the country and Europe, and pick up friends and acquaintances by accident.
- (b) Owing to the change in the mode of conducting business during the past twenty years, the attention of employers has gradually and unnoticed become diverted from the social and moral interests of young men.
- (c) The general inadequacy of salaries to the cost of living.
- (d) Increased exclusiveness of society, and the consequent difficulty experienced by strangers in obtaining access to that which is beneficial and elevating.
- (e) Formerly clerks and apprentices boarded with, and were directly under the eye of their employers. Now, the virtuous and the vicious are oftentimes herded together in the same boarding-house, room, and bed. Driven to these places by limited salaries, and unable to afford fires in their rooms, they are consequently led to frequent saloons and like places, where they are exposed to the most contaminating influences.

They are, we need hardly say, excluded by the peculiar conditions of city life from all society that would be of any moral or intellectual benefit to them. The church might be expected to take care of them, but it does nothing of the kind—for these reasons among others:

- (a) The exclusiveness—more or less necessary—largely prevailing among the regular attendants of many of the churches.
- (b) The lack of social feeling and sympathy with young men, which has been largely increased for the past few years.
- (c) The cost of sittings in the more attractive churches.
- (d) The unwillingness of young men to accept charity in the form of mere mission churches.
- (e) The unattractive character of many others in which the price of sittings is more moderate.

They are thus left to shift for themselves. Having no private rooms, and not being able to afford fires if they had, they pass the long evenings roving from one haunt of vice and dissipation to another, playing billiards for "drinks," playing cards for their scanty earnings, roystering in concert saloons, swallowing blackguardism at cheap theatres, drinking everywhere, the older and more experienced leading the "greener" new-comers every day into lower depths. Drinking habits amongst them are frightfully on the increase. The daily consumption of spirits in New York now is said to be six hundred barrels, and although, of course, this cannot all be set down to the account of single young men, we fear a large proportion of it may. How far even the better class of them are gone in this respect may be guessed by anybody who takes the trouble to watch that, to us, very repulsive performance, an election of officers at the Mercantile Library Association. And yet it is from the ranks of this soiled and demoralized crowd, whose prime has been thus wasted in vulgar vice, vice which does not bring with it even the poor lessons of what is called "social experi-

ence," that the business men who are to maintain the reputation and prosperity of this city in the next generation will have to be drawn.

The Young Men's Christian Association is making an effort now to do something towards remedying the evil by procuring a large building in some central position, with branches in outlying districts, to contain a free reading-room, a circulating and reference library, and to furnish lectures and other means of instruction, besides advice to the friendless and assistance to the sick or needy. If instruction be not made too prominent, or, at least, be not forced too eagerly upon the members or frequenters of the institution, and if the imperative demand of all healthy young men for hilarious amusement be reasonably regarded, there can be no question of the immense good it will accomplish. But there is nothing in which so much care and discretion has to be exercised as in an attempt to improve the moral and religious condition of young men. At the outset the physical comfort of the institution ought to be allowed to furnish the main attractions—the warmth, the light, the reading matter, the easy seats, the good coffee, and freedom from undue restraint, or over regulation. In short, it ought to be made as close an approach in all these things to rich men's clubs as its nature and objects will permit. Unless these points are carefully attended to by the managers, those whom it is most desirable to attract, the men of strong and coarse natures and the men of weak and frivolous natures, will inevitably be driven away.

The movement has the very strongest claims for support on every employer in the city. No man carrying on business in a Christian community to-day can possibly rid himself of all responsibility for either the moral or physical condition of those who earn their bread by doing his work. And unless the churches in our great cities can muster up a little more interest than they display at present in the fate of those who, for whatever reason, know nothing of city churches except their architecture, we can promise them that the religious culture of this generation will leave very few traces on the next. Religious teaching is already declining in quality and in the estimation of the people in the country districts through the wretchedness of the pittance offered to the teachers. The cities have monopolized all the talent of the profession, because they only are willing to pay the market price for it; but even in the cities the pulpit is losing the power it once possessed, as a great moral agent, owing to the manner in which ministers are made to "run with the land," like a water privilege or an "ancient light."

THE HUNGARIAN ADDRESS.

THE address of the Hungarian House of Representatives in response to the speech with which Francis Joseph, the Emperor of Austria and uncrowned King of Hungary, lately opened the Diet of Pesth, is now before the world in the form of a draft elaborated by Francis Deák, and read to the House, in the name of the committee on the address, by Anthony Csengery, the gifted Magyar translator of Macaulay. We call it "the address" in advance, for, though the European mails have not yet brought us the debates on that interesting subject, there can hardly be a doubt that, like its two precursors of 1861, the productions of the same pen, it will, without any, or with only trifling, modifications, be sanctioned by an immense majority of the Hungarian National Assembly. For about thirty years, with the exception only of a short period—during the brilliant but too brief career of Kossuth—Deák, "the great son of Zala" (a south-western county of the Transdanubian Circle), "the Aristides of Hungary," has indisputably been the parliamentary leader of his people, the chief representative of its constitutional liberalism, and, on the most solemn occasions, its voice. As such, since the attempted restoration of constitutional life in Hungary, in 1860-61, almost every important utterance of his has been received by Austria and Europe. The address now pending, though hardly more than an abridgment of the two great parliamentary state papers of 1861, to which reference is frequently made with great emphasis, was received with the liveliest acclamations by the assembly in whose name it is to speak, and with commensurate interest by the European press. As a calm, logical, and lucid statement of the past and present international relations of Hungary to her dynasty and her Austrian sister states, of her actual abnormal condition, and her determination concerning the future, it amply deserves the universal atten-

tion it has attracted, as its dignified tone and clear and eloquent, yet unaffected, diction fully justify the expectation of the public. The following, drawn from the original, may serve as a synopsis:

The Diet expresses its thanks to the monarch for his avowed purpose to rule his nations henceforward in a constitutional way and with their own co-operation; for having put an end to the oppressive misrule which so long and so heavily weighed upon Hungary; for having assembled the national legislature, discarded the pernicious theory of a forfeiture of rights, and unequivocally placed himself upon the platform of the Pragmatic Sanction (of 1723). The worst apprehensions having thus been dispelled, the Diet can begin the work of regeneration with calmness and hope. It appreciates fully the difficulties of the task. "There are critical moments in the life of nations which may be decisive not only of the fate of citizens, but of the entire future of the people, of its very national existence." The present is, perhaps, such a moment. The reconciliation of conflicting interests, after the vital change wrought in the constitution of Hungary by the laws of 1848, would have been attended with uncommon difficulties even in times of peace. But tranquillity would have made a natural process of transition possible; a regular development could have served as a criterion of the soundness of the new system. Unfortunately, stormy events interrupted the work of transformation, and it remained unfinished, its defects unremoved. Life alone unveils the faults of a living law. Experience points out the remedies. Fate deprived Hungary of the time required for observation, a peaceable transition was made impossible, and thus "seventeen years were torn out of the constitutional life of the nation." While circumstances became complicated, Hungary was doomed to inactivity. Now the task is, to do at once all that remained undone, to remedy so much that was ill done.

However, the monarch's speech from the throne has opened the path of useful action, has inspired confidence and hope, and the Diet will do its duty, "so that the constitutional demands of the King and the legitimate demands of the nation may be realized harmoniously and jointly." The Pragmatic Sanction was well chosen by the King as a base and starting-point in the work of restoration. One of the principal objects of that compact was, to secure to the monarch, as well as to the nation, the unbroken succession to the throne of a legitimate heir of either sex, which serves, on the one hand, to perpetuate the dynasty, and, on the other, to guard the nation against the perils of a war of election in the case of the extinction of the male line; another principal object was, to secure to the various countries and provinces which were to remain inseparably united under the same dynasty and the same order of succession a degree of collective power which would enable them easily to resist every attack from without or within. Events have justified the wisdom of that act. It saved Austria in 1740. The importance of the common solidarity it established is too great to be overlooked by Hungary; she cannot desire that the mutual support and strength it warrants to all should be diminished.

But the compact of 1723 sanctions, besides, another fundamental principle, which was the condition of its acceptance by the nation, to wit: the national and administrative autonomy of Hungary. The Diet is happy to see this principle, too, re-acknowledged by the King. History proves it to have been compatible with the integrity and power of the empire. Since it was re-enacted, in 1723, Austria has stood the most tremendous shocks from abroad without the necessity of abrogating it. In spite of all the changes that have taken place in regard to the equilibrium of power in Europe, the integrity of the empire and the autonomy of Hungary are not conflicting things. There is no contradiction in these two ideas; neither must be sacrificed. The task is to harmonize them and preserve both. The rights of both nation and King rest on the Pragmatic Sanction; to infringe it would be legally wrong, politically dangerous.

It is true, what the King emphasizes, that there are common affairs growing out of Hungary's connection with the other countries of Austria, as established by the Pragmatic Sanction. The Diet will immediately apply itself to framing a law to regulate these common relations. There can be no happier augury for so doing than the King's determination to govern all his countries and provinces constitutionally. Liberty increases instead of diminishing by common use. "The same-

ness of the political condition brings nationalities nearer to each other in sentiment, removes estrangement, distrust, and bitterness." The liberty of the other countries will strengthen that of Hungary, for they cannot desire a constitution which would destroy hers. She is ready to enter into relations with them as with constitutional countries, as a free nation treating with another free nation, without prejudice to the independence of either party. What the constitutional forms of those countries shall be, what their relations to each other, are questions transcending the sphere of the Hungarian Diet, and legally concerning only themselves and the monarch. Hungary will hail with joy their deliverance from the evils of an unconstitutional rule, and, in arranging her international affairs with them, will readily even exceed her legal obligations, guarding only her constitutional rights and full national independence.

The Diet has taken into friendly consideration the diploma of October 20, 1860, and the patent of February 26, 1861, which the Emperor has laid before it. It finds the former highly important as first inaugurating liberty for the non-Hungarian countries of the empire, and as a promise of a return to legality in Hungary. This promise, however, has not been kept. The latter act, which tried to establish a common Austrian constitution, was as unconstitutional as it proved futile. Hungary's constitution dates not from 1860. It is coeval with the nation; it sprang from its life. All regal rights in Hungary rest on it. Her elected kings swore allegiance to it. On condition of its preservation, the hereditary right of succession was established in the house of Austria. Each coronation was accompanied by a new written guaranty, in the shape of a royal diploma. For Hungary to accept a constitution based on the diploma and patent would be an act of national suicide of which the Diet will not become guilty. Neither would such an act promote the objects of the empire. It could never be final. Could the mutual good understanding between the countries, which the monarch declares to be his aim, be advanced by an arrangement securing constitutional freedom to one, and at the same time depriving the other of a constitution made sacred by the use of ages and by numberless solemn guarantees?

But while guarding the integrity of the Hungarian constitution, the Diet is not averse to a revision, in a legal way, of the laws of 1848, if circumstances should require it. Modifications desired by the crown must be proposed by Hungarian ministers. It begs the monarch to complete the restoration of the law by an unreserved return to a constitutional rule, and to give that return the high sanction of a legal coronation, before which no law, modified or framed, could be legally presented to him for his signature. Legislation, however, is demanded by the material as well as moral wants of the nation. The Diet will act in the spirit of the constitution, as well as of equal justice, without regard to nationality or creed. It will not forget that the non-Magyar inhabitants of the country are its citizens and entitled to equal rights. It is ready to facilitate, by the greatest possible concessions, the voluntary and cordial return of Croatia and Slavonia to their old union with Hungary proper, even by acknowledging and treating them as a separate nation, if demanded. It thanks the monarch for having invited their representatives, as well as those of Transylvania, to appear in its midst; but it is aggrieved to see that the like has not taken place in regard to Dalmatia and Fiume, which are just as much integral parts of the Hungarian crown.

The Diet appeals to the heart as well as the sincerest of the monarch to restore to their liberty and property all those who have been condemned to punishment for political acts—these belonging now to a past over which the veil of oblivion is to be spread.

In its concluding parts the address dwells at length, and with more emphasis than elsewhere, on the immediate necessity—if the new system is to be regarded as a reality and not as a mockery—of restoring the municipalities of the country, and chiefly the counties, to all their rights and functions of self-government; of giving free scope to their deliberations, so highly productive of enlightenment for all classes of the people; of removing all unconstitutional authorities introduced during the ill-fated period of absolutistic or sham constitutional rule; and of appointing, agreeably to the laws of 1848, an independent Hungarian ministry. To the latter all possible forbearance and a friendly

co-operation are promised in advance on the part of the nation, to facilitate the work of transformation begun in 1848, and then suddenly interrupted, as well as all attempts at putting the interests and institutions of independent Hungary in full harmony with those of the other half of the Austrian Empire, and with the legitimate demands of the common dynasty. All this is urged in a dignified tone, which is significantly strong without being overbearing or threatening.

We regret that want of space prevents us from quoting any considerable part of this important state paper, which, in its entirety, is not only a political but also an historical document.

THE MERCHANT SERVICE.

ANYBODY who has paid much attention to maritime affairs, or even to the reports of our criminal courts, must be aware of the terrible degeneration of our merchant service. A comparison of the present social condition of the officers and seamen of merchant ships with what it was twenty years ago may render some assistance in getting at the reason why. It is true, while officers have held equal rank with the owners, seamen, excepting New Englanders, had hardly a recognized standing off their ships, but were known as brave, honest, cheerful, improvident men, invested with romantic interest. As classes, both officers and men have lost character, a fact of deep national concern. It is the common complaint of officers that ignorant, lazy, careless, insolent representatives of the worst classes of the world's worst seaports have succeeded the formerly well-instructed, prompt, tidy, respectful crew. The change may be partially referred to the extensive introduction of steam navigation, the discontinuance of long voyages, and the employment of very large ships, requiring the services of experienced commanders and many men, and the gathering to the few principal ports of the commercial enterprise of the many small ones, which formerly tempted home-bred boys to an apprenticeship to the sea. Its chief cause, however, is the substitution of degrading treatment of seamen for suitable discipline. Of this ill-usage little is known out of courts of justice, though a miserable reality to those taught as well the abuses as the uses of the belaying-pin, the handspike, and the capstan-bar. Their ignorance and insolence are too often reflections of the characters of masters who have passed into the cabin without the nursery education of the fore-castle, and of mates appointed from among the thriftless relatives of owners, men unfit to live at home, whose qualifications for command are profanity and the "brass knuckles" and "slung-shot" that have given them authority in bar-rooms. It is not unfrequently said by worthy men who have "followed the sea" that self-respect has compelled them to abandon it. The evil reveals the cure. Vessels must be suitably officered before they can be well manned. The means of reform lie largely with ship-owners. That they will apply them is not to be anticipated. While trustworthy consignees receive the cargoes, and attend to the business of their vessels in foreign ports, and they do not absolutely require reliable officers of character to superintend these affairs, they will employ anybody who can safely navigate a vessel and be cheaply hired.

Legislation must be resorted to. The federal laws testify to the high popular regard for shipping interests and for the protection of seamen, but further enactments are needed in order to carry out the public policy. As the law clothes officers of vessels with unusual powers, it should fasten upon them a corresponding responsibility. Before their prerogatives can be acquired, it ought to be ascertained by some fair test whether they are fit for them, and the power bestowing them should provide for their revocation whenever they are abused.

At present there is no means of preventing a master convicted at the termination of every voyage of the grossest brutalities to seamen, or a mate repeatedly guilty of stealing his men's clothing, from retaining their commands, habitually and boastfully indifferent to law. A license system appears to be what is needed to make responsibility real. A license, or certificate, to be granted under proper restrictions, and liable to temporary or permanent forfeiture for misconduct, should be required of every officer. A valuable standing should attach to its possession, the loss of it should entail loss of employment, and there would thus be the strongest motives for behaving well.

A sure accountability to the laws should be established by provisions making arrest for their breach certain. Mates who have exposed themselves to punishment, customarily obtain an adjustment of their wages, get themselves put ashore, and are out of reach before the crew is discharged. The unfortunate seaman who patiently bears abuse till arrival in port enables him to ask justice, finds the privilege of asking his only redress. This stimulates lawlessness.

No employee ought to be permitted to leave a vessel till regularly discharged by a government officer, who should, before granting a permit, investigate all complaints.

Regulations for the shipment of proper crews are also needed. The large foreign element they present is the most commonly alleged cause of trouble. Inexperienced men are not seldom led by shipping masters, eager to fill a crew, to ship as able seamen. Of course the discovery of their incapacity breeds abuse. Would it not be well to have on every American vessel a fixed proportion of actual American seamen, speaking the language? No vessel should sail without a substantial inspection and approval of its crew. Some changes in our judicial system, not calling for discussion here, might well be made to meet the necessities of maritime and certain domestic interests.

In this time of steady and wonderful advancement, the deplorable condition of our merchant service is a disgrace to the nation. A vigorous attempt at reform in the particulars indicated, it is believed, is demanded for the honor of our commerce and the individual welfare of our seamen. Self-interest and humanity alike call for it, and now is the time to undertake it.

T. O.

I.

Up from the narrow prison of forms and creeds—
Out from the courts of charlatans and quacks—
Brushing aside whole fields of briars and weeds,
And with strong arm and keen, wit-sharpened axe
Opening his way apart from beaten tracks,
He led us like a father by the hand
Up to the splendors of an undiscovered land.

II.

His heart we loved; his genius we admired;
His quaint and sportive talk endeared his name;
His prophet tones and words our spirits fired;
A breeze of morning from his presence came;
The sunrise touched us with a ruddier flame,
As upward still we trod the heights with him
When truth's white light turned falsehood's blazing dim.

III.

But he, alas! who saw the light so plain,
Who slaughtered shams with scathing pen and tongue,
Deceived by some false phantom of his brain,
Now gropes through cavern windings, darkly hung
With lurid lamps, whose smoky fires the young
Aspiring faith of Christendom derides,
Turns back from in amaze, and seeks for wiser guides.

IV.

O leader up the mount—where visions grand
Burst on our youthful eyes, while others groped
Through tortuous ways—we held thee by the hand
With springing footsteps, as the prospect oped
Wider and wider. Vainly, it seems, we hoped
Companionship with thee in age as youth.
Despair is in thy voice. Alone we seek for truth.

V.

No, not alone—for many a mind which thou
Scornest, proves thy impartial judge and peer.
O tuneless bard! whose jangling wires now
Play o'er thy one half-truth, so sad to hear—
We mourn for thee, as when some gifted seer
Is snatched from reason's light and love's warm spell
To mumble witless words in a poor maniac's cell!

C. P. CRANCH.

HINTS FOR TOURISTS AND INVALIDS ON ITALIAN CLIMATES.

THE annual tide of travel from this country to Europe will very shortly set in, with the usual tendency, after traversing the Continent during the intervening months, to rest in Italy during the winter. This will especially be true of such as are in feeble health, and are led to anticipate the most salutary effects from their sojourn upon the peninsula. As their disappointment will be most serious, and ought as far as possible to be prevented, we have thought some suggestions as to what to expect, what to avoid, and what of benefit and enjoyment may be obtained in the kingdom of Victor Emanuel, would have a timely interest and value.

In the minds of many the climate of Italy is little short of tropical. In winter, their imagination pictures a land smiling under an unclouded sun, whose burning rays are tempered by cooling breezes from the Mediterranean—in summer, a hotbed of pestilence that none but a Park or a Livingstone would be foolhardy enough to explore. There are those who have been known to leave their woollen garments in Paris when preparing their wardrobe for a winter in Italy; and some have written thither for information whether it would be safe, hygienically, to visit Florence in October.

To such as these, if we were to say that we have in Italy suffered greater inconvenience from cold and less from heat than we have in Boston or New York; that, in Florence, Austrian sentinels have died on their posts from cold, while the lives of Italians, similarly exposed, were saved by their superior hardihood; and that, sometimes, in the latter part of June and the beginning of September, overcoats and violent exercise are essential to comfort, we should be accused of indulging in paradoxes. Physicians send their patients to Italy as to a Pool of Siloam. Without a word of warning from the hosts of travellers and book-makers, the consumptive patient leaves his furnace house, his tight double windows, his wooden floors covered with three-ply carpets, his furred walls, and, after various trials by sea and land, he reaches his winter quarters to find less provision often for the comfort of lodgers than we allow our state prisoners. If he is fortunate enough to be well-advised in the choice of his apartments; if he gets a southern exposure on a broad street or square, not on the ground-floor and not immediately under the roof; if, in spite of brick floors and solid walls (for Italians totally ignore the fact that an air-tight compartment in the walls, such as we make with laths and plaster, is a bad conductor of heat, while bricks and mortar are among the best), he has a stove which, by a constant supply of fuel, is capable of renewing the caloric as fast as it flies off at all six sides of his room and by the thin, rattling, unputtied windows and makeshifts for doors—then, all these conditions being complied with, he may be able to stave off discomfort and preserve his lungs from irritation and his feet from freezing. But let him beware how he goes rashly into a back chamber, looking on a courtyard or a narrow, sunless street, or turns a corner off the sheltered southern front of his house. In the one is a chill like the grave, and at the other he may encounter a blast savoring of icebergs from the Pole.

It is not invalids alone who suffer. All nations obliged to resort to artificial warmth abuse it, and render themselves in so far delicate and unable to resist the effect of cold. The Americans of the Northern States are among those most dependent on fire. To us, then, this feature of Italian winter-life, this want of comfort, is most interesting, and deserves more notice than it has received at the hands of travellers. It is attributable to two causes: to the character of the air, and to the construction of the houses. Of the latter of these something has been said; but of the former, little or nothing.

The air of Italy, as of southern countries generally in the eastern hemisphere, is heavy and inelastic. We say most southern countries, though in our Southern States and the West Indies the damp chill that in the eastern hemisphere pervades ground floors and all places hidden from the sun is not observed. This want of elasticity in the Italian atmosphere appears most strikingly when one goes out of sunny streets or open squares into a narrow street where the sun cannot penetrate. The contrast one feels instantaneously is so great that the two bodies of air seem like solids, that cannot combine or influence each other but at the point of contact. So, too, you may open the windows of a room long shut up, and it will require much time to effect the equalization of temperature with the outer air for which in a more northern latitude a few minutes suffice.

There is a property of Italian air, of which the thermometer takes no account, tending to keep down the circulation. The mercury may be many degrees higher than with us, and yet the sensation of cold, after sitting some time still, is greater, and it will require much more time to get into a glow by exercise. During the winter of 1857-58 even Italian sentinels were frozen to death in Leghorn, though snow was never seen; and an American informed

us that he had slept many winters in Paris under a single blanket, but that during a November in Tuscany no covering was sufficient for comfort. It is common to attribute this peculiarity to dampness; but this cannot be a satisfactory solution, for the north and north-east winds in winter are dryness itself, and under their influence the nails become brittle as glass; yet they abstract caloric in a manner we are quite unused to, and so the poor Austrians found in the cold winter of 1848-49, when, in their own country, with the thermometer much lower, brisk exercise would have kept warmth and life in their bodies. Hence the danger of draughts in Italy, the speedy cooling of the whole body in the hottest days of summer when one faces a gentle breeze, the cooling process of driving in an open carriage, the chill that succeeds sea-bathing in the dog-days, even when the water reminds one of a hot bath, and the miraculous effect of the fan, which ladies must find here gifted with double power.

It would be a better explanation, we think, to say that there is a chemical property of the air which tends to diminish the rapidity of the circulation and to abstract caloric, and that this quality is increased by dampness, altitude, and motion of the air. We suffer, too, more in Italy from dampness, because the unelastic, stagnant nature of the air prevents its rapid diffusion as in northern countries, so that it hangs about narrow streets and lower stories, shady side-walks and the neighborhood of gardens and trees, and prevents the mortar from drying in new buildings. We blame the Italians for want of taste in not planting trees in their towns and laying out gardens in their public squares, but they are not without reason; and it would be wiser not to condemn anything hastily in a foreign country, however contrary to our own habits and ideas. The maxims and old saws of a people regarding health are a sort of common-law drawn from the experience of countless generations; an unenlightened experience, it is true, but the conclusions are rarely altogether wrong. A gentleman with weak lungs has told us that he could always distinguish by his sensations the limits of a garden in an Italian town abutting on the street. We laugh at the Italians for their bathing code, which confines sea-bathing to July and August alone. But there can be no doubt that bathing is not so innocuous as with us, and a chill is more easily taken. Sometimes great benefit and enjoyment are lost by foregoing the bath during a hot June and September; but it is thought wiser not to modify the common-law by statutes, and so the Italians will go on bathing only in July and August, though it sometimes happens that these two months are cooler than the two former. In this extreme they err, but their prudence is not without a color of reason.

Altitude increases the sensation of cold more than with us. Whether mercury is equally affected at a less height, we are not prepared to say. We speak only of our sensations. The inhabitants of villas on Monte Nero, near Leghorn, though it is only a few hundred feet above the sea, and almost destitute of vegetation, represent the evenings and nights as cool in the hottest period of summer.

After all, though we do not believe in the wisdom of sending invalids to Italy, yet it would be idle to argue that it is not a most delightful residence, in spite of drawbacks. The host of foreigners who flock to it and make it a second home would refute such a position. These very drawbacks may be made, with due prudence, a source of good. It is much better to run the risk of catching cold from chilly apartments than, by the over-application of artificial warmth, to become delicate and unable to resist cold. Doubtless many a child has perished under the rigorous régime, sent to an early grave by croup caught by sitting on damp ground or on stone benches, which seem colder here than elsewhere; or by getting into a perspiration on a hot winter's day and returning into a cold, damp cell, sealed to all external influences. But if one has the will and ability to guard against the dangers of a treacherous climate; to dress warmly in-doors, and not be shocked at the seeming paradox of sometimes going out lightly dressed on a winter's day and resuming a warmer garment on returning to the house, and other similar precautions, it is, we think, clear that a child, or even an adult, is better for such physical education than he would be in a climate where, during a long winter, he is coddled in a furnace house, and where all the temptations and inducements are to an in-door life.

The Italians, with the exception of the wealthiest classes, make no use of fire for the purpose of warming except what they can get into a little earthen pot, called a *scaldino*, which they carry about in their hands during the day, and put into their beds at night an hour before they get into them. To them the poetry of the fireside is a dead letter. Their winters are indeed gloomy affairs, and, as this is the only season when they are seen by foreigners, it is impossible for the latter to form a very cheerful picture of Italian life. Firewood is looked on as a very great luxury, and it is thought more economical to spend money in dress than in providing for comfort. They are not, however, indifferent to the agreeable sensation of warmth, in spite of their

hardihood. They would almost suffocate in one of our furnaced parlors; but we remember the cook of one of our Tuscan landlords, notwithstanding her master's boasting that the climate was so mild that fire was unnecessary, confessing to us, after making our fire, that if she could have her choice between going to the theatre and spending the evening before such a fire, she would choose the latter. Government employees, to whom firewood is furnished gratis, use it profusely.

A large middle-ground is open between the economical extreme of the Italians and our own hot-houses, and, following a few simple rules, the traveller in Italy of average health will find he can make himself tolerably comfortable.

Avoid *new* houses at all seasons, three years being held here necessary to be sure of perfect dryness.* Choose an open square for winter and a southern front; or, what is better, south-eastern, so as to get the first morning sun. Avoid the neighborhood of gardens. Get as many front rooms as possible. Avoid the lowest and highest stories. The fireplaces are never good; but an open earthenware stove costs but little, and the landlords are always willing to put them up if the tenant will share the expense.

In Florence the best situations for winter are the sunny side of the Lung' Arno, the Piazza Pitti, and the Piazza Maria Novella. The Piazza dell' Indipendenza is not quite so warm in midwinter, but it has the advantage of meeting the spring sooner, being a sort of *rus in urbe*, while the streets in the central part of the town bottle up the winter's cold some weeks longer.

In Pisa, as in Florence, the Lung' Arno is the warmest exposure.

In Rome, Via Gregoriana, the sunny side of Via Felice, of Via Capo le Case, of Piazza di Spagna, and of the streets leading from it to the Corso, viz., Condotti, Croce, and Trattina. But all of these must yield to the first two, where the advantage of height is added to that of sun. Every one must be struck, in coming down the steps of the piazza, with the damp, cellar-like chill of the lower parts of the town. After a rain the highest part of the Via Capo le Case is the first to dry. In the lower streets it is particularly important to live high up in the house, thus getting more sun and less damp. The penultimate is the best; but the highest is better than the lowest or even second story.

As spring advances and summer is approaching, the great flock of travellers is on the wing; but let our readers be persuaded that there is no good cause for flight. *Experto crede.* Believe the word of one who passed through fifteen Italian summers, and is alive to tell of it. You can never see Italy in her beauty if you confine your visit to the cold weather. It is not enough to stay through the spring. We have a letter before us from a distinguished writer, dated Naples, at the end of May, according to which, "if the Italians would only get over the delusion that they live in a warm climate, we could get on very tolerably." Indeed, the houses are built and arranged only with reference to the summer; and it is not till we have got over the damp and chill, even of spring, and can throw ourselves on the turf under the trees, that the true charm of Italy is felt.

Then as for heat, the same quality of the air that, in winter, freezes up your blood, now tempers the opposite extreme. A slight breeze, a friendly shade, a moderate elevation, the neighborhood of woods or the sea—all have an effect that, to an American, seems magical. If the traveller is at Naples, he can spend his summer at Castellamare, Sorrento, or La Cava; or he may pass over to the island of Capri, and there, according to an account of a friend who tried it, go through July and August without a sensation of heat. So much as this cannot be said for Sorrento, where we once spent four months and a half, from the middle of May till the end of September, on a villa on the edge of a cliff that hangs 200 feet over the sea, embosomed in an orange-grove, and covered with vines and climbing roses. Before the house lay the whole expanse of the beautiful Bay of Naples, Vesuvius smoking in the distance. The path to the sea goes through immense caves cut in the *tufa* rock by the ancients, and leads to a smooth sand-beach, where the bathing leaves nothing to be desired. Here it is imagined that the sirens used to sit, and hence, it is pleasant to believe, came the name of the town. The cost of living was but little in this earthly paradise. The villa cost us, furnished, but \$25 a month. A boatman (we remember his name well, Raphael, and his honesty, too) used to come every afternoon to bring purchases from Naples, and receive orders for the next day, his boat being one of a fleet that leaves every morning at daylight for the metropolis. He was a perfect Phoenix, and we used to wonder how the Pre-Raphaelites used to get through the season. Boats are in abundance to make excursions to the

blue grotto of Capri or along shore; donkeys are ready saddled for climbing the hills that surround this beautiful valley; and one of the most romantic drives in the world is on the road to Castellamare, from which a railroad leads to Pompeii, Herculaneum, or Naples. That was a pleasant summer, if a hot one. But now—*quantum mutatus ab illo!* Our villa is no more, but in its place has arisen the envious palace of the Prince of Syracuse. We doubt not there are many more to be found; and, if not, a summer might be passed in many a worse place than the Hotel Tasso, one of the very best in Italy. It was formerly the family mansion of Tasso and the place where he spent his youth. Things change but little in Italy, and here you may feast your eyes on the identical scene which first woke a responsive chord in the bosom of the future poet.

In the neighborhood of Rome the choice of a summer residence may lie among Albano, Frascati, and Tivoli. In Tuscany the chief resorts for the summer are Leghorn and the baths of Lucca, also Sienna and the mineral waters of Monte Catini. These last and Leghorn are the places most frequented by the Tuscans; Lucca is that most resorted to by foreigners, especially the English.

For our own part, we prefer Leghorn. We know that foreigners are not generally of our opinion, but we think it is because it is not fairly tried. The few who, to our knowledge, have spent a summer there, generally repeat the visit. The Bagni di Lucca, though high and abounding in vegetation, and, therefore, enjoying cool evenings and almost cold nights, are quite shut in by mountains which cut off the ventilation and offer a concave reflector for the sun's rays, which thus become doubly potent. There is a sense, too, here of confinement. One longs to see a sunset, and, like the Prince of Abyssinia, to get beyond the lofty ridges that shut in this Happy Valley. The air seems stagnant and oppressive, and we shall not soon forget the delightful effect, after a hot summer at Lucca, of the fresh sea-breezes of Leghorn. Here the season begins and ends with July and August. The Italians talk of going to the *bagni* in the summer as a prime necessity of life. People of very moderate circumstances, who would not buy a stick of firewood in the winter, leave their houses and crowd themselves into a narrow, dirty apartment, paid for at an exorbitant rate, trusting to the mystic influence of the air or to an occasional dip in the sea to produce a miraculous influence on their bodies. It would be thought by them a tempting of Providence to bathe before the first of July, even if, as often happens, the weather and water have got their maximum of heat; and the first rain that may fall towards the end of August is a signal for all to stop for the season. They talk of a bath as of a most violent therapeutic remedy; and while they dose their insides habitually with the mineral water of Monte Catini, they seem to dread the application of common water, whether salt or fresh, hot or cold, to their skin as they would a surgical operation.

The best position at Leghorn is outside the Porta a Mare. Here, for two or three miles along the coast, are villas and furnished lodgings of all descriptions. The best position is thought to be at Palmeri's baths, and his apartments are always the first to be taken. A mile beyond, *i. e.*, two miles from the gate, is the Casino of Ardenza, much resorted to by the fashionables. There are also villas, further back from the sea, very prettily situated; and if one wishes a cool residence without bathing it can be found a mile or two further, on Monte Nero, where Byron once occupied a villa.

Another place is Sienna, which (to its credit be it said), though like Leghorn offering few attractions as a residence to the passer-by, yet is spoken of highly by those who have tried it during summer, and often returned to. Some ambitious students of the language exile themselves winter and summer in Sienna, on account of the recognized superiority of accent claimed by its inhabitants. Such self-sacrifice is praiseworthy, and it would savor of harshness to suggest to these martyrs that the chance is very slight of their approaching near enough to the true thing, in any part of Tuscany, for the space between Florence and Sienna to afford an appreciable parallax.

Another mode of passing the summer is villa life in the neighborhood of Florence. The country is perfectly studded with these residences, mostly furnished (scantily, however); and, by choosing situations on the brows of the many neighboring elevations, country-life, coolness, and independence may be combined with the advantages secured by proximity to a capital; such as Bello Squardo—chosen by the author of "Aurora Leigh" for the residence of her heroine—San Miniato, and the Poggio Imperiale.

In conclusion, we can only repeat what we have said—that, for invalids and children, Italy is not the place, unless they and their friends bring a large stock of prudence, and are willing to profit by the experience of others. Under these conditions, they can make Italy, throughout the year, an agreeable and healthy resting-place. Let them neglect these precautions—let them get an apartment on the ground-floor of a new house, opening upon a garden to the north, and they may only serve to prove the truth of the law

* As a proof how little travellers are prepared for the climate in spite of all the books written on Italy, a lady, just arrived in Florence, took an upper story just built on the top of an old house. She remarked there was little to be said in favor of the apartment, but that it had one very decided advantage—it was perfectly new.

maxim: *Cujus est solum, ejus est usque ad coelum*—which may be thus paraphrased: Whoso takes a ground-floor in Italy will have need of no other lodging this side heaven.

A DESCENT INTO THE DEPTHS. DIVERSIONS OF THE FOURTH WARD.

THE Fourth Ward, I believe, is the only rival of the Sixth in its triple distinction of filth, poverty, and vice. At the close of our inspection of the latter we held a consultation with Captain Thorn, who recommended not only a separate night for this district, but also two or three hours during the day, and kindly offered his services as guide and protector. We met, by appointment, on Monday afternoon, at the police station in Oak Street.

The sharp north wind which was blowing not only froze the filth and garbage of the streets into a solid mass, but almost completely deodorized the lanes and alleys we visited. In this respect we were not called upon to endure a very severe trial, but there was still enough left to stimulate the imagination and cause us to shudder as we anticipated the effect of summer heat upon these low-lying, swarming quarters.

Since our exploration of the Five Points, ten days previous, an event had occurred which is destined, let us hope, to relieve the city of much of the reproach and the danger which I have already described. The new Board of Health had been appointed, and the owners of these barracks and cellars becoming suddenly conscious of a change in the atmosphere, began at once to clean and ventilate and purify. The names of Dr. Willard Parker and Mr. Schultz have run far in advance of their official action. Fifteen hundred loads of filth have been already removed from the Fourth Ward, and in many courts and alleys only a dirty tide-mark on the walls remains to tell of their recent condition. Some streets (Cedar Street, for instance) were still ridged up to the height of nearly two feet for their entire length, but the accumulations had been loosened and broken up preparatory to removal.

We first visited some houses in Fisher's Alley, which may possibly be a little better than the dwellings in Cow Bay, though of this I cannot venture to speak positively. There may be slight degrees of comfort—or rather discomfort—perceptible to the inmates, which an inexperienced eye would fail to distinguish. It is difficult to draw comparisons below a certain grade of wretchedness; whether true or false, they are equally odorous. In these houses we found a family in each room, some with half a dozen lodgers in addition. Children swarmed in the dark passages, on the broken stairs, and in the noisome back-yards. The walls were cracked, the ceilings leaky, the broken floors mended, in some places, with barrel-staves nailed over the holes, and the windows so patched and dirty as to exclude much of the light. The rent varied from three to five dollars a month. In almost every instance it had either been recently increased, or an increase was threatened.

The custodian of one of the houses—a woman with black eyes and bruised nose—was anxious to impress upon us the fact that the place was soon to be cleaned. Arrangements would be made in a day or two, she said, to remove the great pile of refuse in front of the door. There were also hints of scrubbing and whitewashing; but all such improvements will be very temporary in their effects. There is no permanent cure short of tearing down the buildings.

We next descended into a number of lodging-cellars, not more than one in five of which was lighted, except, perhaps, by a window in the upper part of the door. Dark, damp, unventilated, and so cramped that we were frequently unable to stand upright, these dens paid a rent of from nine to sixteen dollars a month! The price of a night's lodging is fifteen cents. Although we were always careful to leave the door open wherever we entered, a few minutes in such an atmosphere were enough to produce oppression of the lungs and a disagreeable taste in the mouth. What must it be towards morning, after a dozen men and women have been sleeping there for hours?

In the lower part of Cherry Street we found barracks a shade better in appearance, and very much more expensive. The rooms were still miserably shabby and dilapidated, but the ceilings were higher, the windows larger, and some rooms of southern aspect were tolerably cheerful. Here the families have a habit of arranging their crockery in open dressers, the shelves of which are ornamented with cut paper; pictures are common, and the reckless untidiness of the people is chiefly to be seen in their beds. Some of the families occupied two rooms, and furnished board as well as lodging. The fronts of the houses present a better appearance than the rear, but there is little difference in the rent.

In one of the attics we found a German chair-maker sitting at a table, with a bowl of pieces of carrots, potatoes, and turnips before him. He looked

at us with an idiotic stare, scarcely answering our questions, though put in his own language, and, finally, after tapping his breast and saying, "I'm sick!" fell to eating again. There was no fire in the stove nor any furniture in the room. Another miserable den brought double the usual rent, because it was a "furnished apartment." The furniture was a bed, two chairs, and a chest of drawers, all on the point of falling to pieces. The inmate, a broad-faced, unkempt girl of seventeen, informed us that a man lived with her. Two other girls, visitors, made a pretence of turning away their heads and laughing, but she faced us with a defiant boldness which might indicate either courage or depravity.

Turning into East Gotham Court we found a block of tenement-houses, upwards of one hundred and fifty feet long, standing at right angles to the street. There were six houses, and twenty families to a house, and a similar block in an adjoining court—making two hundred and forty families, living in the rear of the street, within a space a hundred yards long! The narrow alley-way which gave access to these dwellings was pierced, at regular intervals, with open gratings, down which we looked into a continuous open sewer, the common sink of all. It was fortunate for us that the keen cold kept down its terrible exhalations. There was only one thing to be said in favor of these blocks, and a similar one upon the other side of the street—the cellars were not inhabited.

Two hours sufficed to make us acquainted with the life of the poorer classes in the ward. After seeing the three varieties—the cellar, the vile back tenement, and the shabby front tenement—our further exploration was simply a repetition. The same state of things was continually reproduced, in different phases of repulsiveness. We grew weary of looking upon a degradation so passively accepted.

Captain Thorn promised us a different experience for the evening, and we were not disappointed. We proposed seeing the diversions, the delights, the indulgences, of the same class of people, to whom the dance-houses of Water Street are what the Academy of Music is to the dwellers on Murray Hill. We waited until nine o'clock, that the curtain might first fairly rise on the subterranean orgies, and then set out again in the company of our stalwart friend.

Many nationalities are here represented—mixed in some localities, clannishly separated in others. China was the first with which we made acquaintance. Into a basement, along a dark passage, where a furious little dog gave warning of strangers, and the door opened upon a misty atmosphere of opium and tobacco, a perspective of sleeping-berths in the back-ground, and a group of flat Mongolian faces around a table covered with huge dominoes. The pieces were hastily mixed together, and the game broken off, when the captain made his appearance. The landlord, however, greeted us courteously, and some twelve or fifteen of his boarders gathered around, a mild curiosity lurking in their small eyes. The opium-smokers, stretched at full length in the berths, and inhaling the precious vapor through hollow reeds, looked at us listlessly through the mists of their dreams. It was evident that to them we were phantom figures, standing somewhere in remote space. In an inner room the same indulgence was going on, and the air was dense with the peculiar odor of the drug.

These Chinamen were mostly sailors. Some who had given up the sea, and now sell bad cigars and other cheap commodities, have married Irish women, and are adding a new Celto-Cathayan race to our cosmopolitan population. For board and lodging (the former including, as the landlord informed me, much rice and chop-sticks) they pay two dollars and forty cents per week. Captain Thorn stated that they were the quietest and best-behaved people in the ward. Their demeanor to us was polite and respectful; and, although I have an exceeding dislike to the Chinese as a race, I could not help acknowledging that these specimens, at least, were by no means so brutalized as their Caucasian brethren next door. Their obtuse moral sense, it seems, does not lead them into such depths of degradation as the perverted moral sense of the Anglo-Saxon. The latter, when he is ignorant, is the most ignorant, when vicious the vilest, when brutal the most of a brute, of any race on the earth.

A native-American establishment in Water Street was the next point of interest. Viewed from the street it was a drinking saloon, but through a half-open door in the rear came the sound of music and glimpses of white and pink figures. The floor was clean, the bar in admirable order, pictures on the walls, and an air of order—almost of respectability—about the whole place. A man of firm, sharp features, and keen, intelligent eye, bade us welcome. We passed through the bar-room and took seats in a rear hall, upwards of fifty feet in length. At the further end, on a platform, sat four musicians; on the floor twelve girls were dancing a quadrille. Half of the latter were *décorées* to the last point; their heads were decorated with ribbons and flowers, and their distended skirts reached a little below the

knee. They resembled giant children of eight or ten, except that their dancing had none of the grace of childhood. The others, in plain dresses of dark calico, moved like nuns among these bedizened creatures.

Presently the host came into the room, took his station by the door, and commanded a march. The music struck up, and the girls formed a double line across the hall, swaying from side to side in time with the measure. Then commenced a series of evolutions, marching, countermarching, right-about facing, the word of command being given by the host in a loud, sharp tone—nor those words only, but many a savage reprimand, as some happened to fall out of step or line. His cold, severe, classical face formed the strongest possible contrast both to the scene and the other actors in it. His authority was unquestioned, whether cheerfully acknowledged or not. My friend ordered some refreshment for the dancers, and it was furnished without interrupting the evolutions. The girls fell into single file, marched, still swaying from side to side, to a counter near the music, took, in turn, a glass of something (apparently beer, from its color), emptied it with a "Here's to you, gentlemen!" and danced on.

The proprietor of this place appeared to be a man of considerable intelligence, if not education. He was no common character; his ascendancy among those abandoned creatures was the least manifestation of his capacities, and if his gains are in proportion to his shrewdness (which I suspect is the truth), it will be safe to predict that in three years he will be alderman, in five member of the legislature, and that in ten he will have a house—possibly on Fifth Avenue.

Water Street abounds with dance-houses of similar character. We visited twelve or fifteen, which differed only in the proportions of the dancing-saloons in the rear, and the number of female performers. There are portions of the street where almost every other house is so occupied, and the rents paid by the proprietors are enormous. There are frequently two counters for the sale of liquor, one next the street, and the other at the rear end. Over some of these I saw the notices, "Twenty cents for a dance," and "Ten cents for a drink." Notwithstanding the greater expense, much more dancing than drinking was going on. Perhaps the captain's presence put a stop to the latter indulgence, or it was too soon in the evening; but certainly there was very little drinking to be seen, and no intoxication anywhere.

Towards midnight the dancing became incessant. The Scotch reel seemed to be most popular, though there were occasional waltzes and quadrilles. The male dancers, to judge by their peculiar swing and shuffle, were mostly sailors—many of them boys of eighteen, or even less. The girls went through their part with a weary, mechanical air, often drawing their naked shoulders together as the cold wind blew upon them. At first, on entering, the general effect was coarse and repulsive; and it was singular how soon this impression was softened by the wonderful sensuous glamour which belongs to music. The air, impure as it was, presently became rhythmic; the dancing figures, though by no means graceful, assumed a fawn-like character, and the real purpose of the establishment, carefully kept in the background, was no longer suggested.

I could easily understand that vice, thus embellished, should be attractive, especially to the inhabitants of the dens we had visited in the afternoon. It is, in appearance at least, a step above their reckless wretchedness. Warmed, lulled into semi-forgetfulness by some potent stimulant and "flattered by music's golden tongue," no one can wonder that a week's earnings are so often spent for a night's dissipation. The exhibition of moderate neatness and partial order, in these places, was so agreeable, by contrast, that I found myself constantly forgetting their disreputable character. The first step towards reclaiming the lower classes of our population must be the introduction of some innocent form of recreation and amusement—not moral lectures, but music, dances, puppet-shows even—diversions which give more than the dance-house now offers, without its temptations.

In the midst of this region there is a Mission House, which we also entered. We found a clean, well-lighted hall, with plain benches for the auditory, a platform for speakers, and texts of Scripture upon the walls. The services were over, but the janitor, a grey-headed man, was very enthusiastic in setting forth his own redemption from evil ways. "In two weeks I shall be eight years old," said he—"eight years in Christ. I was once a miserable creature; no one would receive me, or have anything to do with me. I tried to join the Odd Fellows, but they would not have me. No more would the Freemasons; for I was a drunken sot. Then, at last, I went to Jesus, and he took me just as I was." This old man was the happiest person we saw; he was completely filled and satisfied by his faith.

After we had exhausted the principal attractions of Water Street, Captain Thorn proposed taking us to a "dago crib"—a very mysterious and suggestive term, until I learned that Spaniards were called "dagos," when

I guessed that it was simply a corruption of the individual name "Diego" applied to a class. The place was kept by a Messinese Sicilian, married to a Hamburg woman. Dancing of an animated character was going on down the centre of a long room, on either side of which sat a row of villainous-looking Spaniards and Italians, with an occasional German. The glances they shot at us from under scowling brows boded no prepossession in our favor, and the captain's company was more agreeable than ever. Yet the landlord and his assistant were models of graceful courtesy. The former sent for a bottle of sweet Sicilian wine and filled glasses for us, the Hamburg woman joining in the salutation. This place, being more wicked than most of the others, was proportionately interesting, and we spent half an hour watching the appearance and movements of the persons assembled.

A round of the lager-beer saloons of Chatham and William Streets closed our labors for the night. If the dance-houses seemed respectable by contrast with the lodging-cellars, these saloons were aristocratic. Here there was plenty of space, plenty of light, ventilation, ornament, music, and, above all, order and (at least external) decency. The proprietors are semi-cultivated men, most of whom have had a wide experience of the world. The beer is excellent, its quality not having diminished with the size of the glass. Many of the saloons do an immense business and their proprietors are rapidly becoming wealthy. Those in the Fourth Ward are in no wise inferior to the similar establishments on the Bowery.

A few steps up Frankfort Street brought us to a view of the City Hall by moonlight. Here, also, there is a foul atmosphere which no Health Commissioners can purify. Which is worse, vice in low places or dishonesty in high? As I reflected upon this question, I found myself less inclined to pronounce harsh judgment upon the classes we had just visited, seeing how inevitably their phase of poverty produces filth, and filth loss of self-respect, and loss of self-respect vice, and vice crime. More than half the evil in the world springs from material rather than moral sources. And missions, charities, schools, and associations for reform work against wind and tide until we have a good municipal government.

B. T.

New York, March 8, 1866.

THE SOUTH AS IT IS.

FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.

XXXII.

PARISH OF ORLEANS, La., Feb. 17, 1866.

I WISHED after leaving New Orleans to visit Baton Rouge, and, for the sake of seeing the country and the people between these two cities, I decided to make the journey on foot. My valise and overcoat, therefore, were sent forward by express, and I carried with me only a very light equipment of such things as would be indispensably necessary during a week's walk. I reached the little suburb of Carrollton before twelve o'clock, and there enquired for the road to Baton Rouge. "The river," everybody answered with a stare; "a boat; nobody went by land," and at last they told me to take to the levee. Accordingly I climbed the bank and was fairly on my way. At the end of the first five hundred yards a colored soldier ordered me to halt, and referred me to his officer for the reason. The lieutenant said that he had orders to keep all Jews and peddlers out of the camps; the men were being paid off. Satisfying him that I was not a peddler, he suffered me to pass on, and for a little way I walked in company with two negro women who were going into the country to make a Sunday visit to their relatives. They talked about the capture of New Orleans, the cannonade at the forts, the first appearance of the fleet, and the fright among the citizens. That was the day, one said, when them rebels run all about. Yes, said the other, that was the time when the stripes come off'n their pantaloons! They told her the d—n Yankees had come, and the very first thing they'd blow up the city and kill all the people. They would n't kill her, she told 'em. She knowed she'd never done nothin' but work hard; not her, not since they done sell her out o' old Virginny. They told her a heap more'n she believed. Same as they said that Confederate flag never should come down off'n the Custom House; the man that laid a hand on it should die sure. But she noticed the Yankee flag went up very quick. As for herself, her mind was all made up to run for them same cannon that talk'd down the river, if the Yankees did n't come up.

These recollections the women dwelt on with much apparent enjoyment, as is usual with the negroes whenever they talk of Federal successes. By-and-bye we came upon another guard, and I went on alone, leaving the soldiers examining the baskets of the women to see if they contained whiskey, and soon I fell into the company of a young man who, after finding out my business, informed me that he was a teacher employed by the Freedmen's Bureau, and urged me to spend the night with him. He would show me a

usus natura, he said. He would introduce me to Mr. B—, a man born in the South, once the owner of several slaves, afterwards for a long time an overseer, who was not only a Unionist, but actually believed that the negro was the equal, and in many respects the superior, of the white man, and should be allowed to vote. Mr. B— was manager of the plantation he was living on, which was only twenty-five or thirty acres further up, and I would find him very hospitable.

¶ consented to go with him, and as we walked along he bade me remark that the surface of the river was eight or ten feet higher than the land, and that the field-ditches all ran not towards it but away from it. The country along the Mississippi for many miles above and below New Orleans and Baton Rouge was a narrow strip of good land, with the river on one side of it and a swamp on the other. Then each plantation was a strip of land, the most of it worthless, extending back, sometimes many miles, into the swamp water; and in estimating the size and value of the farm the important element entering into the calculation was always the number of acres fronting on the levee. The country is exclusively agricultural. It is customary, therefore, in measuring length to use the measure applied to the farms, and to speak of points upon the road as being so many acres or so many arpents distant from each other.

It was not long before we came to the dwelling-place of my new acquaintance. The house was a low building, shaded by magnolia trees, in the middle of a flat yard, which looked like a goose-pasture with its slippery mud, its short green grass, and shallow pools. His school-house was on the next plantation. On first coming into the service of the Bureau he had been compelled for several months to live in a part of one of the negro cabins; but Mr. B— had taken him out of those disagreeable quarters, and established him more comfortably where he was then. His pay was eighty dollars a month, the same with that given other teachers of his rank. Those of lower grades received sixty-five and sixty dollars a month, and no one was employed without first passing a thorough and severe examination. In no other State, he thought, had the rate of wages for teachers in freedmen's schools been so very high, and from all I hear of the examination to which teachers in Louisiana have been subjected, I should say that the standard of qualification also has been exceedingly high. General Baird's recent order, directing that the negroes shall hereafter pay the expenses of their schools, goes into operation in March, and during February all schools are suspended. Meantime agents go about explaining its provisions to the people. Its effect, this teacher thought, would be to diminish considerably the number of persons under instruction. Anticipating its promulgation, he had offered to keep his school open during the intermission if each pupil would pay one dollar. Formerly, he had eighty-three pupils; now he has only thirty-five. But, if I am not mistaken, a compulsory support of schools is intended.

At night we walked out half a mile to the negro quarters of a neighboring plantation, and visited the cabin of one of the laborers. Several of his friends dropped in, and the schoolmaster directed the conversation to the subject of education. Two men were spokesmen for the others, and presented the different aspects of the question. Here they were, one said, working for only twenty-five dollars a month. Out of that amount they had to buy food and clothes and everything else they wanted, and were also taxed half a dollar a month to pay for the regular visits of the doctor. If he ordered medicine, that had to be paid for. Mr. M—, their employer, did not want women in the field—not now, at any rate—and the man's wages were all that was coming in. It was pretty tight living, and come to put on a school tax on top, nobody could stand it. The wages all went for victuals. How could they save a dollar a month for schools?

The other man, a carpenter and engineer, said that the school tax would not be a dollar; it would be only seventy-five cents a month. Mr. M— had explained that all out to them; and by-and-bye the women would have work as well as the men, and would be getting half a dollar and a dime a day for it. Education was the greatest of all things. What made the difference between a white man and a black man? Knowledge and wisdom. Look at this: Mr. M— hired him and paid him thirty dollars a month, and he had to find himself out of it; but he hired Baptiste and paid him a hundred dollars a month and found him everything he wanted. Now he could do the work Baptiste did, just as well, and perhaps a little better; but when it came to taking a pencil and paper and calculating and figuring, he could not do it. Baptiste could tell the feet in a load of boards; he could not. Education was the thing. "For we old generation," he thought, it was too late to go to school; but the children ought to be educated. Leaving learning to your children was better than leaving them fortune; because if you left them even five hundred dollars, some man or education than they had would come along and cheat them out

of it all; but learning they could keep. He ended by begging the teacher if his boys would learn their lessons in no other way to whip them night and morning. The little girl was more easily managed; she sometimes sat up half the night over her geography book. The other men fully agreed with him as to the importance of education; it was the tax that frightened them, and they so poor; but of course they meant to keep their children in school as long as they could.

Going back in the dark, we could hear the steamboats panting down the distant river, but could only see them as moving clusters of lights, floating as it seemed in the air, the river was so high above us. Mr. B— had returned in our absence, but had immediately gone away again, for a squad of soldiers, searching for a stolen mule, had forcibly taken away one of his, and he had ridden to the camp to recover his property. He had not come back when I rose in the morning, and I lost the opportunity of talking with him.

February 18.

The morning was close and warm when I set out again, and it was a constant pleasure to walk through the unfamiliar scenery in the delicious weather, the air full of the earthy smell of the new herbage and ringing with the songs of birds. For miles together the appearance of the country is the same. On the levee one is in the middle of a great oblong space, almost flat. The bank he walks on is about six feet high and a yard wide at the top. Its sides are covered with sods, and a trodden footpath, edged with grass and small-leaved clover, and slightly elastic beneath the step, winds away before him and seems like a green ribbon with a wood-colored stripe running through it. On the left hand is the yellow stream of the river, more than a mile wide. The trees along the further bank are not thick together, and the white houses, never far apart, shine through them. For the most part they are leafless and indistinct, and as one looks away up the river the low shores of the distant loops and bends range themselves irregularly behind each other, and at last would almost fade into the hazy sky, but that one sees the globe-like deep green mass of some live-oak standing out against the dim background of blue grey. There is little on that side to break the monotony: the shadow of a buzzard skims along the bank; a skiff runs out and, making fast to the roots of some floating pine, tows it in; a negro silently fishes, swinging a long-handled scoop-net; a steamboat is seen now and then, and perhaps she suddenly turns her bow to the shore, the current carries her stern down the stream, she swings to the bank broadside on, picks up a passenger, and is off again.

On the right hand, at the foot of the levee, is the dirty road. Behind this road the brown fields, with spots of green, and marked by fences and long ditches and canals, stretch back for a mile or two, sloping with an almost imperceptible inclination to the swamp. This appears as a line of bleached and leafless forest, hung with heavy masses of what one knows to be grey moss. Dotting the great muddy plain are the various farm buildings, the dwelling houses near the road, further in the rear the village of negro houses, then, sometimes a mile away, the sugar house with its massive red chimneys, and furthest of all, on the edge of the swamp water and close to an unseen levee, the roof that covers the cumbersome draining machines.

These lowlands of Louisiana are in appearance by far the richest country and the best populated that I have seen in the South. Sometimes for a mile or more the houses stand so close together as to form a continuous line, and one is never out of sight of some dwelling place. In walking twenty miles one usually passes two or three of these villages, with their foreign-looking inhabitants, the shop signs in the French language, the chapel where a bell is ringing for service, and the little houses sometimes plastered with mud, but usually seeming neat and clean. The planters' houses are often handsome buildings, and it is common to see them standing in a fine grove of evergreens, orange trees, perhaps, with loaded branches, while the ground beneath is golden with the fallen fruit. At two o'clock it began to rain, and I took refuge in a wayside grocery, where a young man talked with me about political questions. It was strange, he said, to see what fools the Southern people had been since the surrender. They would not wait till their Congressmen were admitted, but showed their hand plainly. He had told a good many men that all this legislation about the niggers ought to be put off; there was no hurry; but they thought things ought to be fixed right off, so that they could make a *coup* this year, and they went on doing what he called playing the radicals' game. Of course the North would stand by the nigger. A couple of months ago he had been in Alabama, and two niggers came into that country from the North; one was a well-educated fellow, too, and had something to do with a newspaper in his own State. The young men run 'em both out of the country. He told them they had no business to do it; of course that nigger told his story when he got home, and made it ten times worse than it was. The result of

that kind of thing would be that negro suffrage would be forced on the South. He had prophesied it for months; but they laughed at him, and said that anyhow they could control the negro vote. Well, when a man was d—d fool enough to talk like that he'd better be left alone. The niggers would vote for the men that gave them their freedom.

While I sat there several negro men and women stopped on their way home from church and bought whiskey and tobacco. The store was a miserable little room in the yard of a large house, and the storekeeper was the planter's son, a young man and apparently a person of some education. The rain ceased for a little while, but before I had walked far recommenced, and I began to look for a place to stay in for the night. I found it at what is called Rost's Colony, a plantation twenty-five miles distant from New Orleans. It was for some time held by the Bureau as confiscated property, but the owner, having been pardoned, now receives rent for it. It is not only worked as a plantation, but is also an asylum for negroes disabled by age and sickness. There are now 745 people living there, of whom 100 are able-bodied persons receiving pay for their labor. Fifteen dollars per month is the amount given to each full hand, in addition to shelter, food, and two suits of clothing yearly. They are said to work very well, although a man formerly employed as overseer went away in disgust at free labor. The expense of carrying on the farm during 1866 will be about \$40,000. Should the season not be a bad one, it is estimated that the value of the molasses, sugar, and cotton produced will be \$90,000. The cost of maintaining the colony will be \$25,000, including the expenses of supporting an hospital and keeping a physician at a salary of \$100 a month. Six per cent. on the net profits is paid to an experienced sugar planter who acts as overseer. This is the only institution of the kind in Louisiana, I am told.

Here I met the agent of the Freedmen's Bureau for the parish of St. Charles. He reports the condition of the freedmen as being satisfactory. They are all at work, except upon some few plantations which are not under cultivation, the lessees having abandoned them for one reason or another. Ten dollars and fifteen dollars a month are the wages commonly paid, and where more than this is given the laborer buys his own food and clothing. The women are not paid so much as the men, and are not always hired by the year, but often by the day. No planter gives his laborers the whole amount of wages due them when the monthly pay-rolls are made out, but one-half of the money remains in the planter's hands until the end of the year. Outrages or frauds upon negroes were very infrequent.

There was only one opinion among the gentlemen at this house about the political sentiments of their Southern neighbors—that they were hostile to the Government and to Northern men. None of them, however, complained of having been himself injured or insulted.

February 19.

In the morning I was invited to ride out and see the plantation, which is considered a model, and has evidently been carefully managed for some years. The powerful and complicated machinery for sugar-making is said to have cost nearly a hundred thousand dollars. There was also the gin-house with its separate engine, the grist-mill and the engine, and heavy water-wheel of the draining-machine in the swamp. The negro houses formed a long street, and, like most that I see in Louisiana, were superior to the laborers' quarters in other Southern States. The house, now used as an hospital, had been built for that purpose by the owner of the place; there are now twenty-one inmates, some of them men more than a hundred years old. After looking at these things I bade good-bye to my kind entertainer, who insisted on my taking one of his horses and riding two or three miles. A little negro boy, mounted on a creole pony hardly bigger than a yearling calf, accompanied me, and was full of chat. When he grew up he intended to be a hand on one of the steamboats; that was better than working on a plantation, only they turned a man away too quick. Freedom was better than slavery, he thought; for one thing, in free times, you could go to school. His horse could run mine down; it was God's truth, and, if I did n't believe it, I could try it. Then he rode straight up the steep bank of the levee, showing off the powers of the animal, and brought her down again safely, and made her jump a ditch. He was sometimes whipped in school, he said. Leaving him to go back with the horses, I walked on in the face of a strong wind which ruffled the river into waves, and made me glad when the levee now and then forsook the bank and interposed between me and it a screen of willows growing up out of olive-colored pools of water. Soon a young man on horseback overtook me, and we travelled together. He was a Bostonian, who came into this State in 1864. Last year he cultivated a plantation on "the coast," as everybody calls the river-shore, and this year he rented one place on the coast and two in the Red River country. The negroes worked as well as could be expected of people who had been brought up as they had, and fed on such food as the slaveholders gave their

hands; of course, they were not so efficient and profitable laborers as whites were. He intended to make his home in Louisiana, and desired no better country to live in. He weighed ninety pounds when he left Massachusetts, and now he weighed a hundred and forty, and was afraid of no kind of weather or work. The people always treated him like a perfect gentleman, and there was no greater mistake than to suppose that they did n't like the Northern men. When the war first broke up a Yankee was not very favorably received; it was much the same in the South as it was then in the North when a Southerner was seen; people looked at him and said: "Perhaps that's the scoundrel that killed my son or killed my brother." But that feeling had worn away. He had lived among the people of this State, he had recently made a long journey on horseback into Texas, and everywhere he had been treated as well as he could ask. And he never denied that he was from Massachusetts nor concealed his hatred of slavery. So far as danger was concerned, there were many mean fellows in the country, who cared nothing for law, who always had been in the habit of using the pistol in any little dispute; but it was easy to take the necessary precautions against such men, and he felt just as safe here as in New England. As to negro suffrage, universal negro suffrage, the men that advocated such a measure as that must be lunatics or fools. At any rate, they had a very poor idea of what made the glory and strength of true republican governments. The niggers were destitute of honesty; they did n't know the meaning of principles; they were ignorant and debased; and to put the ballot in the hands of such a set as the common plantation negroes would be ruinous. Could n't any man of common sense see that the country would be filled with a tribe of miserable demagogues, worse, if possible, than the John Slidell democracy, the moment that the negroes got political power? Of course, if a man could honestly believe in the right of these ignorant men to vote, he had a right to uphold his belief by speech and writing. It would partly depend on how he talked about it whether he could talk with safety in this country. Let him be as civil to his neighbors here as he had to be in New York or Massachusetts, and there was no doubt he could express any opinions that he might hold. Intelligence and good character, in his opinion, should be made the conditions of exercising the electoral privilege; but Congress had no right whatever to interfere in the matter; it should be left to the States.

The gentleman's plantation on this road, a small farm devoted to the culture of rice, was not far from the place where I first met him, and he invited me to dinner. The house was a small cottage, with about two hundred acres of land behind it, and was occupied by his overseer, who has entire control of affairs here, his employer being absent most of the time on the Red River plantations. As we entered the gate a bell was ringing calling the laborers to their afternoon work. They go out at six o'clock in the morning and work till sunset, an hour and a half being allowed for breakfast and three-quarters of an hour for dinner. The food of each laborer consists of a peck of meal every week and five pounds of bacon, or three pounds of mackerel, the cost of a week's rations being \$1 40. Two suits of clothing—one worth \$25 and one worth \$15—are furnished each laborer yearly, and he is paid \$15 a month. The quality of the food and clothing is better on this plantation, I am told, than on any other in the neighborhood; and the general management of the place is so well liked by the colored people that when, on commencing work, the overseer wished to hire seven hands, he had more than fifty applications. Seven men receive permanent employment, and there are six women who work occasionally, and are paid fifty cents a day.

At night I stayed at the Grey Eagle Coffee House, the tavern of the creole village of Bonnet Carré, where there was no one able to speak English but the old negro cook. They made me a bed on two benches in the billiard room, and I went to sleep to the sound of my landlord's voice, who read aloud to his wife from a copy of "Les Trois Mousquetaires."

February 20.

In the morning I found him again at his book, from which he was once in a while called away by men, some of them barefooted, who came in with their hands in their pockets and drank absinthe at the bar or played billiards. I received a dozen *bon jours* when I left the party and walked briskly on till noon. Then I stopped at a little shop to buy bread and cheese. Half a dozen creoles were lounging there, and my appearance excited a good deal of curiosity. They gathered round me while I ate, and one who could speak English asked many questions, interpreting my answers to his friends. From New Orleans, eh? When did I leave? I was out of my work and was seeking for place? Perhaps I was a schoolmaster? At last I gave him a full account of myself, but he seemed unable to believe it; a newspaper correspondent was an unknown personage to him. It must be there was something wrong with me. Oh no, not that I was not all

right; but there was some trouble, it was plain, or why should I be traveling on foot. Was there no trouble, no sweetheart? But it was very strange. I knew my own business, but I did not tell to strangers. He, like my look in the face, however, and, though he was a poor man, if I would come dine with him I should be very welcome. He had been a traveller himself.

I should say that nearly three-fourths of the white people along the road from New Orleans to Donaldsonville are creoles, and a great proportion of them are ignorant of English. They are neither large nor handsome, and have the name of being an indolent, careless race. Most of them cultivate no cotton or cane, but raise crops of corn and vegetables on their little farms, which border the road, while the larger property of their neighbors extends behind theirs, cutting them off from the swamp. They live for the most part, one of them told me, on chickens and eggs, and their wood and water comes from the river. A ball on Saturday night and billiards on the other six evenings of the week, it is said, are their pleasures. But some of them are both wealthy and well educated. I stayed at night in the neighborhood of a great white convent, with a family of these creoles, who readily received me. None of them, except the oldest son, spoke English, and he seemed little inclined for conversation, but showed me silently to my room. I learned afterwards that the father had died only the day before.

DONALDSONVILLE, La., February 21.

To-day I was for the first time afloat on the Mississippi, having been ferried across at a point seven miles below Donaldsonville. The ferryboat was a light skiff, manned by a creole and a colored man. Their little pine oars were rudely shaped, but they handled them well and took the boat over in a straight line in less than ten minutes. The row-locks were iron pins driven into the gunwale, to which the oars were tied with cowhide thongs. Landing on the western shore, I was told that the distance to Donaldsonville was six miles and seven or eight arpents by the levee, but by the "cut-off" it was only five miles and two arpents. I therefore chose the cut-off, and was soon exceedingly tired of it, the sun being oppressively hot in the fields and the road now painfully rough and now muddy. I was glad of half an hour's rest under the roof of a lonely draining-machine, and a drink from the ditch, for a walk of seventy or eighty miles enables one to relish very simple pleasures. A little after noon I reached the town.

ENGLAND.

LONDON, March 1, 1866.

THE bill suspending the *habeas corpus* in Ireland was passed almost without opposition. The debate, indeed, which ensued on its introduction was not unworthy of the occasion. Sir George Grey for once was impressive in his appeal to the good sense and patriotism of the nation: Mr. Gladstone spoke with an air of command which of late has sat upon him not ungracefully; and Mr. Mill was, as usual, clear and logical; but the speech of the evening was that of John Bright. Speaking as he did on an unpopular side, he completely carried away an almost hostile assembly by the force of his impassioned, earnest eloquence. Even the reporters' gallery, the most unenthusiastic, and, in a popular sense, unsympathetic, body of men I have ever met with, felt the influence of that rhetorical power. Yet to those who merely read the debate, I should doubt if this speech of Mr. Bright's will appear by any means the finest of his printed harangues. When you read it over in cold blood, it labors under the fatal defect of proposing nothing. The great free-trade orator felt as keenly as any Tory colonel on the opposition benches that when the Government asked for such abnormal powers on behalf of the safety of the empire, no true Englishman could possibly refuse to grant them. He did not, therefore, object to the motion in itself; he only declaimed against the policy or want of policy which had made that motion necessary. And to me, personally, Bright's position, as a non-objector and yet a critic, seemed a somewhat false one. Either the demand of the Government was just or not. If it was not just, he ought to have opposed it with his vote; if it was just, he was scarcely justified in seizing this opportunity to complain of a policy which belonged to a bygone time.

I have no doubt that the Fenian movement will create considerable interest on your side of the Atlantic, and, therefore, I hope that you will excuse me in speaking of it in somewhat of a personal sense. It is my wish, as far as possible, to exclude my own individuality, if I may use the term, from these letters. I only speak of myself or of my own opinions now because I consider, with regard to this matter, I am a fair representative of ordinary English thought. Now the one thing with regard to the whole movement about which I feel absolutely and positively certain is, that it will be crushed if ever it comes to an outbreak. The town is full of rumors of disaffection among the troops quartered in Ireland; making every allowance for the exaggerations of panic, I have no doubt there is too much truth in these

rumors. But, if any regiment in Ireland was to mutiny to-morrow, I should have no more doubt about the restoration of the imperial authority than I should have about the sun rising to-morrow. If there should be any attempt at a Fenian rising, all I can say from the bottom of my heart is, God help the poor wretches who are participants in the outbreak! For them, on this side of the grave, there will be no chance of mercy. We can pardon a "cabbage-garden" conspiracy, like that of Smith O'Brien; we can laugh at the constructive treason of the *Irish People*; but if it once comes to an actual tangible endeavor to upset the Government of Great Britain and Ireland by force of arms, then all England will be united as one man. If once it becomes clear that the suppression of an Irish revolt is essential to the safety and integrity of the empire, then men of all creeds and all parties will be alike in calling for decisive measures. I am not saying now whether this feeling is right or wrong, Christian or unchristian; I am only saying that it is the ruling sentiment of the English nation, and that any person who, judging from speeches like those of Mr. Bright, should imagine that an Irish rebellion would find any sympathizers in England, would find himself most woefully mistaken.

Thus much I feel bound to say, in common honesty, and, even more than that, I must also admit that even liberal Englishmen find themselves hopelessly embarrassed when they are asked what they think ought to be done for Ireland. Our forefathers acted cruelly and iniquitously towards the Catholic population of the island. But because our fathers did wrong we cannot reasonably be expected to give up our imperial system. It would be as reasonable to plead that the Northern States had no right to uphold the Union because in former generations the citizens of those States fostered or tolerated slavery. As far as I can learn, no policy that could be suggested consistently with the maintenance of the empire would satisfy the authors of the Fenian agitation. The existence of the Established Church in Ireland I hold to be a valid grievance; the tenure of land, as it is practically worked across St. George's Channel, I believe also to be a hardship; but if we were to abolish the establishment and establish "tenants' rights" to-morrow, the Fenians would still remain as hostile to our rule as ever. The end and object of Fenianism is the detachment of Ireland from the empire; and this object we neither shall nor, as I hold, ought to assent to, so long as we have power left to resist its consummation by force.

However, I am writing now rather with a view to express what I believe would be the national policy under certain given conditions than to describe it as at present existing. Up to this time the whole Fenian agitation has not taken hold of the English mind. The Government are, as I have reason to know, infinitely more perturbed about the whole matter than the ordinary public. Throughout the week troops have been leaving, evidently for Ireland; but the public cannot yet take Fenianism seriously. Not a single paper, as far as I know, has even sent special correspondents to report upon the state of Ireland; and the money market itself, that most sensitive of all political barometers, has shown no indication of being affected by the rumors of an expected insurrection. Indeed, the optimistic view, that everything in the British isles is, on the whole, as good as it could possibly be anywhere, or at any time, is so deeply ingrained amongst us, that it would need a moral or political convulsion before we begin to doubt the truth.

A short time ago, Mr. Thompson, a rich manufacturer, who contested South Lancashire unsuccessfully in the advanced Liberal interest, visited the United States. Being a strong sympathizer with the cause of the Union, he was painfully impressed on his return to England with the utter ignorance of the educated classes on all American affairs. He therefore proposed to found a professorship at Cambridge with a sum of five thousand pounds. The professor was to be nominated by the authorities of Harvard College, and, if approved by the senate of Cambridge, to deliver a course of lectures on legal, social, and historical questions connected with America. A large party amongst the dons of the university disliked the project because it seemed to involve the assumption that something good could "come out of America;" but still this was an argument which even the old-fashioned college deans were ashamed to put forward; and the only overt opposition to the scheme proceeded from an obscure master of arts called Dodd, who propounded the following ingenious theorem—that an American professor must inevitably propound doctrines hostile to church and state, and therefore either he would pervert the minds of the students, or else, what he obviously regarded as more probable, he would so incense their loyal hearts that they would wreak summary vengeance on his devoted head. However, though I suspect, at many of the Common rooms, while the after-dinner port was being imbibed, many of the old fellows opined there was a good deal of truth in what Dr. Dodd said, yet nobody of any note had courage enough to support him. The proposition that the offer should be accepted was eloquently supported by Professor Kingsley, who had

been somewhat conspicuous during the war for his pro-Southern sympathies. His speech was a genial and friendly one enough; but I think the Harvard professorate will be rather surprised to learn that their especial recommendations, in the eyes of the sometime author of "Alton Locke," are the conservatism of their characters and their keen appreciation of the defects of republican institutions. On the first discussion, then, at which only the resident members of the university were present, the opinion in favor of accepting the proposal was overwhelmingly in the ascendant. But between the first and second discussions the country clergy had been summoned to the rescue of bigotry. As usual, they responded nobly to the call. Circulars were sent round informing the non-resident clerical members of the senate that Harvard College was the chosen abode of Socinianism; that any professor nominated by Harvard would seek to corrupt the youths of Cambridge from the doctrines of the Church of England to those of Socinianism; and that therefore all loyal sons of Mother Church must vote against this attempt to Americanize our faith. The appeal was not made in vain; the rectors and curates of the neighborhood flocked into Cambridge, and a large majority of the senate decided that to allow a professor nominated by Harvard to give lectures at Cambridge would be a dereliction from the duty we owe to the one Catholic and Apostolic faith, as expounded by the Church of England.

I was present the other day at the celebration of a grand, though I fear unsuccessful, effort to revolutionize one of our great social institutions. The public dinner, with its heavy four courses, its fruity wine, its lugubrious glees, and its solemn after-dinner oratory, is one of the hardest social inflictions which Englishmen have to undergo. On all such occasions ladies are rigidly excluded. They may, indeed, sit in the gallery, and eat cakes and ices, and watch their lords and masters over-eating themselves below; but they are not allowed within the dining-room. Some years ago there was started a fund for the relief of poor comedians, and this dramatic institution had, of course, to be promoted by an annual dinner. At this dinner it was resolved to admit ladies. Naturally, the supporters of the institution do not belong to the most strait-laced classes of the community. But somehow the experiment has not answered. English prejudices are against it, and English prejudices are quite as strong amongst actors and actresses as amongst the commercial and professional classes, in whom "respectability" is, as it were, incarnate. The actresses who are married do not come because their husbands will not allow them, and those who are not married will not come because the married ones stop away. Even the extraordinary popularity of Charles Dickens as chairman could not induce the theatrical profession to rally round him; and the society, I fear, will never prosper greatly, though an excellent one in itself, till the ladies are sent back to the place whence they came.

By the way, Mr. Sothorn is going to bring an action against the owners of the *Spiritual Times* for publishing a libel upon his moral character in a communication from an American correspondent.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, Feb. 14.

THE ingenuity applied to the invention of new amusements in fashionable life continues to grow week by week. The quadrille of "The Gazelles and the Leopards," for instance, which was got up at the ball of the Minister of Marine, was a curiosity in its way. The "Gazelles" were the handsomest women, the "Leopards" the finest men, of the season; the spots on the skin of one of the latter were composed entirely of diamonds. The favorite feature of a ball nowadays is the cotillion, which is always the concluding dance, and is sometimes kept up, under the inspiration of spirited, active, and ingenious leaders, for three or four hours. The latest and most popular novelty introduced into the cotillion is called "The Davenport Wardrobe;" an imitation of which famous piece of furniture, made very light, so as to be easily moved, being placed in the middle of the ball-room, and one of the gentlemen being shut up in it, the ladies put their hands, one after another, through the holes in the door, and the captive is kept prisoner until he has divined the owner of at least one of the hands. When he has performed this feat, another gentleman takes his place, and so on, until the divining power of the cavaliers present has been sufficiently tested, and a sufficient amount of laughter has been got out of the affair.

An old game, called *Le tournoi burlesque*, has lately been revived, and is an infallible mirth-provoker. The joustiers in this novel style of tournament (always gentlemen) seat themselves on the ground, with their knees drawn up, their shins crossed, and their hands clasped round the latter. A stick, rather over a yard long, is then placed under the knees of each player, and tied firmly in place with a handkerchief, in such a way as that knees, stick, and hands are securely fastened together. At a given signal the players divided into two

squads, dodge themselves about upon the floor, each endeavoring to upset the others by poking at them with his stick, and those who are upset, or only touched, are at once put out of the game; the ranks of the combatants are soon thinned, and the fight is presently narrowed to a duel between the two most skilful of the rival knights. It is difficult to imagine anything more ludicrous than the spectacle presented by twenty or thirty of these combatants, all equally busied in laying about them with their sticks and in avoiding or parrying the thrusts of their adversaries; especially when, perhaps, half a dozen of the heaviest have had the ill-luck to lose their balance, and flounder into the most ridiculous attitudes, in their vain attempts to get themselves again into a sitting posture.

Paris has been making diligent use of the last days of its short carnival, and laying up a stock of satisfied mundane souvenirs for the enlivenment of Lent, which penitential period begins next Wednesday, and will be varied by small, cosy dinner-parties of the most luxurious description and "dancing teas," at which the traditional humiliation and breast-beating of the time will be duly recognized by the rigid tabooing of the word "ball" and the substitution of the piano for the violin. Some very *recherché* little dinners, worthy of Lent, have already been given, the fortunate purchasers of an immense and very fine tortoise, caught last week on the coast near Toulon, and forthwith sent up to Paris and divided among three or four of the leading gastronomic celebrities, having each given a prandial entertainment, worthy of Lucullus, to a few intimate friends, in honor of a windfall most unusual in this part of the world.

Soirées, with or without music, have also been numerous. At the one given by Princess de la Trémouille, the cards of invitation contained the significant word, "Thérèse," and not a soul of all those who received them missed the chance of hearing, in the princess's splendid saloons, the renowned *diva* of the smoky interior of the Alcazar. It is all very well for the devotees of high art and rigid propriety to declaim against the novel style of the popular songstress, and the occasional breadth of suggestive implication contained in her ditties; but it is impossible to deny that the woman is a wonderful artist in a line of her own creating, and that it would be difficult to imagine anything more perfect than her songs and her singing of them in her own peculiar way. At all events, she has taken so firm a hold on the liking of Paris that not even the most strait-laced duchesses would now think of sailing out of a drawing-room to testify against her presence; while Patti, in all the radiance of her starry glory, is one of Thérèse's most enthusiastic admirers, and claps her little white-gloved hands in ecstasy whenever she hears her, which she does as often as she can. Patti, by the way, had engaged to sing a few evenings since for the moderate sum of 5,000*f.* at the soirée given by the fabulously rich Jewish grandee, Mme. de Gunzberg, but subsequently declined to fulfil so trifling an engagement; whereupon Mme. de Gunzberg engaged that other wonderful warbler, Mme. Miolan-Carvalho, lessee of the Théâtre Lyrique, who accepted 2,400*f.*, and sent the guests into raptures with her exquisite singing.

A couple of brilliant theatrical successes have marked the last week, one being the conversion into an opera of Lamartine's beautiful story, "Fior d'Aliza," by those skilful playwrights, Michel Carré and Hippolyte Lucas, the music being furnished by Victor Massé; and the other a new play, "Héloïse Parquet," the manuscript of which was deposited in the letter-box of the manager of the Gymnase theatre, accompanied by an anonymous letter, requesting that the piece, if approved, might be put at once upon the stage, and adding that the writer renounced beforehand all share in the profits of the play, being determined to remain *incog.* The new candidate for the honors of representation having been pronounced a *chef d'œuvre*, was at once put in hand, and has now been brought out in admirable style and with a strong cast, and most successfully, the enthusiasm of the public being wrought up to an unusual pitch, and the house, at the fall of the curtain, making frantic demands for the author. But these demonstrations only succeeded in bringing the manager to the footlights, and in drawing from that dignitary a solemn assurance that it was out of his power to accede to the demands of the audience, the author having intimated his fixed determination to remain unknown, whether his piece proved a failure or a success. The curiosity of the public is greatly excited as to the authorship of the new play, but the knowing ones have arrived pretty unanimously at the conviction that it can only have issued from the practised and fertile pen of the younger Dumas, and explain the mystery by supposing that the dramatist has taken this method of proving his authorship of "La Supplique d'une Femme," claimed, as your readers doubtless remember, by M. Emile de Girardin. The latter, in order to show to an incredulous public that at least he *could* have written that play, brought out "Les Deux Sœurs," a flat, tedious, and absurd affair, which effectually convinced the public that the man who could perpetrate such a lump of theatrical

lead could not, by any possibility, have written the brilliant play whose paternity had been so hotly contested by the rival claimants. It is surmised that Dumas, junior, in order to demonstrate more conclusively the truth of his claim, has taken this method of showing the superiority of his dramatic talent over that of the editor of *La Presse*. "You brought out your 'Deux Sœurs,'" the public imagines the author of "*Héloïse Paranequet*" to say to M. de Girardin, "with an immense flourish of trumpets and all the publicity of the Parisian press, and it fell heavily, irrecoverably. I send my play anonymously, to make its way solely by its own merits, unaided by the prestige of its author's name, and Paris, judging it solely on its merits, lauds it to the skies. It is easy, therefore, for the world to judge which of us two has the best right to lay claim to the authorship of the '*Supplée d'une Femme*.'"

The Emperor, amidst his innumerable pre-occupations, has found time to read portions of the forthcoming volume of his "*Life of Cæsar*" to M. de Sacy; the new senator, it is said, expressing enthusiastic admiration of the passages thus made known to him.

Two eminent chemists have sent to the Academy of Sciences a learned memoir on "the transmutation of metals," which they state to be feasible, and on their method of transmuting several of the other metals into gold, a feat which they claim to have accomplished. The Abbé Caselli has given a lecture, illustrated by diagrams and experiments with his machine, in the amphitheatre of the School of Medicine, on the system of telegraphy which bears his name and which reproduces the exact writing or other design transmitted by the operator. The students were so much interested by the lucid explanations of the learned inventor, who spoke in French, that they cheered him vehemently at various stages of his demonstration, and passed a unanimous and enthusiastic vote of thanks at the close. And a society has been formed at Magdeburg with a view to ascertaining the truth of the solemn declaration contained in the testament of the late Dr. Julius Fischeweller, of that town, recently deceased there, at the age of 109, to the effect that his unusual length of life and the mental and physical vigor he enjoyed to the last are due simply to his having always slept with his head due north, and his feet, consequently, turned to the south, by which means the iron in the blood has been constantly magnetized by the currents of terrestrial magnetism, and the vital energies of the system constantly renewed.

It seems odd enough that, within a day's journey from this brilliant and luxurious city, there are wide districts so infested by wolves that the peasantry are in constant alarm for their flocks and even for their children. Government gives twenty francs for every male wolf, twenty-five for every female, and a smaller sum for each cub, and the skins and fur of the animals fetch a few francs more; thus wolf-hunting is regarded as a profitable employment, and *battues* are organized among the inhabitants of the villages for their destruction. These *battues* usually take place in May, when the lady-wolves are about to add to their families; and in December, when the savage crew, maddened by hunger, come down from the hills to prowl after food.

The head-ranger of the district having announced a wolf-hunt for a certain day, the whole country-side comes together, the landed proprietors, their servants, peasants, doctors, conscripts, and schoolmasters, who, armed with bludgeons, fire-arms, pitchforks, bells, brooms, and saucepans, sally forth at a given signal to the ravines most frequented by the wolves. The riflemen are then arranged in a semi-circle, with their backs to the wind, along the roads which border the woods in which the wolves are concealed. No one is allowed to fire in the rear; and, to prevent accidents, marks are made on the trees for their guidance during the confusion of the *battue*. Everything having been prepared in a dead silence, a signal is given, and the assembled peasants, with the aid of pots and kettles, stout lungs, and iron-shod staves, combine in the production of a general uproar. Owls waken from their slumbers, deer are startled from their covers, foxes and hares bound away panic-stricken. But none of these creatures are shot, every bullet being reserved for the wolves, which appear, at last, in a pack, rushing on like a wave, roaring as it goes; and as the yelling creatures cross the fatal path, every gun sends forth its murderous discharge, and thirty or forty wolves are often the result of the volley. After the *battue*, the peasants mount the heads of several wolves on a pole, and march through the villages, beating drums, singing the local hunting-songs, receiving presents of money, meal, grapes, and wine, and finishing the day with a feast and a dance.

The *battues* of December are differently managed, and the rich land-owners make them the occasions of much jollity. Previous to the meeting a number of carpenters repair to the woods, choose a suitable site, and erect thereon a large square hut of undressed logs, strongly placed together, and with intervals of about four inches between each. This hut is left untouched for several nights, that the animals may become accustomed to it; and a

duck or two, a goose, or a sheep are tied up near it as a bait for the wolves. On the evening appointed for the *battue*, the huntmen and a long line of servants start for the forest, taking with them four calves, a cask of cold meats, a hamper of wine, and a horse-load of pale cognac. Enconced within their wooden fortress they eat, drink, and smoke; but not the least noise is permitted, not a laugh, or a cough, or a whisper, or even a sneeze. When night fairly sets in and the wolves begin to sniff the air, the calves are led out and each—must it be said?—receives an incision in the neck which sets it bleeding and bleating, and thus unconsciously appealing to two of the keen senses of their enemies. Nine, ten, half-past; the dead silence of the forest is broken only by the screech of an owl, or the crash of a branch snapped off by the wind. Suddenly the calves break out into a fresh fit of bleating; they bellow and groan and tug at the ropes, trying to escape. Every cigar is put out, and the sportsmen pick up their rifles and place their muzzles in the gaps between the logs of the hut. Black spots are seen upon the snow; the wolves are scenting the calves, and, imagining them to have come astray, attempt to carry them off. Four or five of the leaders rush forward and plunge their ravenous jaws into the flesh of the poor animals; their numbers increase every moment, and, just as this hideous banquet is at its height, the sportsmen open their fire; the wolves fall or fly, but return again, and are received with another volley. Other wolves, attracted by the smell of their bleeding comrades, press to the scene and are met by showers of fire and death. This slaughter of malefactors continues for several hours, when the few surviving wolves slink back to their dens, and the sportsmen, leaving their hut, make a huge fire on the ground, round which they sit and eat and crack jokes until the morning, when the peasantry assemble, gather the dead wolves together, and march in triumph through the villages, adding the gifts of the villagers to the rewards given by the Government and making a handsome sum out of the affair.

Preparations for the great exhibition of next year are going on with the utmost activity. The Champs de Mars is boarded in to prevent the interruptions of an inquisitive public. Within the magic circle an army of laborers are at work, and ere long the rising walls of the future edifice will be visible from the high ground of the Trocadero, which is itself being pared, levelled, built on, and beautified as only the determined genius of a Haussman could have decided. The Emperor is determined that the world shall wonder at the splendor of Paris, and he is hardly likely to fail in carrying out this determination.

STELLA.

Correspondence.

WEST POINT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

I have read with satisfaction the comments on the Military Academy which have appeared in your paper, and, as the subject is of great importance, I venture to make further criticisms on the system of discipline.

You have pointed out the absurdity of appointing cadets per Congressional districts; the impropriety of investing members of Congress with this patronage as anti-republican, generally used injudiciously, often corruptly. You urge the necessity of raising the standard of qualifications for admission, and of dismissing pupils pronounced by the faculty unwilling or incompetent to follow the course; so that the country shall maintain an academy wherein the art and science of war shall be studied, and not the rudiments of a general education; and support and tuition expended only on those able and willing to receive it and to render a fit return. When these improvements take place the \$3,500 which each graduate now costs the country will be reduced to about half that sum, and this paid for a more complete military education than can be given to the present unprepared pupils.

There is another objectionable feature in the West Point system which impairs its usefulness and its popularity. The monastic seclusion of the cadet detaches him from society, destroys his sympathy with his fellow-citizens, whom he calls civilians and regards as strangers and inferiors. This would be all very well in a monarchy, where wisdom and patriotism are required only of the one who rules, and passive obedience is the virtue of all the rest, who are but puppets in the hands of the showman. But as the success of our government depends upon the intelligent interest of every citizen, any system of education which, instead of cultivating that intelligence and stimulating that interest, tends to incapacitate or disincipline young men from taking a part in the affairs of their town, their state, or their country, is anti-republican and disintegrating. This enforced segregation tends also to cramp and warp the mind, withdrawing young men from the world just when their observing faculties are most keen and their un-

burthened memories most retentive. Nor does this unnatural seclusion from the innocent gaieties of youth, from the healthy influences of women's society, affect the morals more favorably than the mind. These young monastics are likely to become either morbid ascetics or to substitute the gratification of the appetites for the enjoyment of the affections from which they are cut off.

Such, it seems to me, must be the consequences from this conventual system, and, as far as I have had an opportunity to observe, such they are.

There are many intelligent and enlightened men who received their education at West Point, but as a general rule the army men are neither so well informed nor so liberal-minded as men of other professions, graduates from our colleges. There are many officers temperate in their speech and in their habits, but they have a tendency (a tendency, I say) to become either saints or satyrs.

Whoever looks over the list of graduates will be surprised to see the number of Catholic priests, Puseyite and other clergymen, bred at this school for soldiers; and whoever has associated much with officers or has heard the history of our battles for the four last years will testify that there are too many who are not temperate in all things, and whose conversation is not simply yea, yea! nay, nay! And if this war has proved the absolute necessity of a national academy where military art and science can be learned, it has also shown that common sense and tact and sympathy with their fellow-citizens with whom or over whom they are placed are essential qualities in an officer, which can only be acquired by mingling more with them in their early and plastic years.

The biographies of many of our volunteer officers, the history of many of our regiments, demonstrate the fact that a soldierly character may be impressed and rigid discipline enforced upon a command by men whose minds and hearts have not been starved and wasted by four years' exile from the world.

L.

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

CALIFORNIA has wisely kept pace with the older States in investigating and publishing the results of scientific explorations intended to develop her physical structure. The second volume of the "Geological Survey" of the State is just commenced. Its subject will be the "Paleontology of California." The portion now issued contains the first instalment of the description of the tertiary invertebrate fossils, by W. M. Gurr, to be illustrated by thirteen plates. The technical execution of the work compares favorably with any of the other State surveys, not excepting Prof. Rogers's splendid volumes on the geological survey of Pennsylvania, which were executed at Edinburgh by A. Keith Johnston, and other eminent artists.

—Mr. Wm. Gilmore Simms has announced his purpose of editing a collection of the "Poetry of the South during the late War." He requests copies "of all such pieces as relate to the war, or any of its incidents" from their authors, and desires that the copies sent should be dated, the name of the newspaper or periodical where they originally appeared being also given. Communications should be addressed to Wm. G. Simms, at the office of the *South Carolinian*, Charleston, S. C. If any one can dig out gems from the poetic mine it is one who, like Mr. Simms, possesses an ardent temperament in strong sympathy with the cause of his insurgent fellow-statesmen. Hitherto the specimens that have reached us of poetical inspiration from that quarter do little credit to the superior culture so persistently claimed for the region; grammar and rhyme have as often been wanting as reason in the best known specimens.

—It is difficult to keep up with the great amount of scientific matter relating to anthropology and the questions connected with the material history of man now publishing in separate works or journals in Europe, and equally so to arrive at definite conclusions in which men who are considered as authorities are willing to unite. Prof. Huxley, one of the cleverest and best known of writers and lecturers on the subject, is one of the most contentious, and is conspicuous above his fellows for violent denunciation of contemporary opinions. His last work is on the human remains found in ancient burial mounds in the county of Caithness, in the north of Scotland. He seeks the nearest analogies for these remains in the bones of the aboriginal Australians, and, recording from scattered data the early inhabitants of Britain, gives anything but a flattering picture of them. His description of a female is summed up: "Putting all the elements of the picture together, No. 1, with her long shins and heels, narrow hips, relatively broad shoulders, retreating forehead, and projecting jaws, can hardly have been either a

graceful or a comely personage." Prof. Huxley's memoir appears in a volume by Mr. Samuel Laing, M.P., the well-known statistician and economist, on "Prehistoric Remains of Caithness." Other important contributions to the science of man are promised by Mr. Greenwell in his "Decade of Skulls from Ancient Northumbria," devoted to the illustration of funeral interments usually known as British, with detailed views and accounts of the circumstance of each discovery; and by Dr. J. Barnard Davis in a more general and important work, "Thesaurus Craniorum: Catalogue of Skulls of the Various Races of Man." The materials of the work are derived from the author's own collection, the result of many years' research and labor, comprising between fourteen and fifteen hundred skulls. It will form an octavo volume of three hundred pages, with wood-cuts. It is remarkable that, in America, where this science first sprung into being, from the labors of the late Dr. Morton, of Philadelphia, little has been done of late in its prosecution, and no successor has been found to carry on the enquiries and line of research opened by the "Crania Americana" and "Crania Egyptiaca" of Dr. Morton, which are now among the rarest and most valuable works ever issued in America, whose appearance raised the scientific character of the United States in every learned society abroad.

—Messrs. Bunce & Huntington, the new and enterprising firm, who seem to appreciate more than most of our publishers the advantages of combining artistic taste and execution with literature, announce an embellished book on a subject that every New Yorker should take a paternal interest in, "The Central Park," illustrated by A. F. Bellows, of the National Academy. It will contain a full history and description of the Park, with delineations, literary and graphic, of its picturesque and notable features. Though elegantly executed, it is not intended to be an expensive work; but rather to be of service to the million, by making them familiar with scenes and beauties not always appreciated as they deserve from their very accessibility and freedom to all.

—The "Critical History of Christian Literature and Doctrine, from the Death of the Apostles to the Nicene Council, by James Donaldson," of which Vols. II. and III. are just published by Messrs. Macmillan, is a book that may almost be said to inaugurate a new era of theological criticism in England. The author's name is new to the literary world; no clue is given by the work itself to his ecclesiastical "stand-point," though every step of his progress leads him through a land studded with doctrinal pitfalls for the unwary. With no exceptions the early remains of Christian literature have been studied in England only for purposes of attack and defence. They have been examined by the light of preconceived opinions, and such testimony as they afford has been strained and warped as best suited the objects of contending parties. Mr. Donaldson's point of view has been different. After a full literary history of each work, its edition, etc., and a biography of its author, he digests in a purely objective manner the passages it affords that bear upon all the great leading questions of doctrine and polity, respecting which each writer is an undeniable witness of the opinions prevailing in his own day. One of the many interesting results of the process, when faithfully performed, is the proof it yields of the gradual evolution of what passes for the body of orthodox Christian doctrine from the original simplicity of idea that predominates in the apostolic fathers of the first century to the complex metaphysical theories of the Athanasian and Augustinian schools. The first volume of this work is devoted to "The Apostolic Fathers," the second and third to "The Christian Apologists," and others yet remain to be issued. It is an augury for the good success of Messrs. Clark's projected "Library of the Early Fathers" that Mr. Donaldson is named as one of the editors of the series.

—The new edition of the great "Dictionnaire Universel des Contemporains," by G. Vapereau, is an unanswerable argument against all who would reproach the present age with a scarcity of "great," or at least of "notable," men. The ample pages, nearly two thousand in number, must certainly contain ten to twelve thousand biographies, all of persons whose claim to be found there arises from the possession of a certain European celebrity, though to merely Anglican ears by far the larger number will sound strangely. English notabilities come in for their sharp of attention, though in this department allowance must be made for the inevitable blunders that are found in any Continental treatment of British names, titles, etc. The whole work, however, in its colossal dimensions, is a favorable specimen of the executive skill brought to bear by French littérateurs on compilations of the kind, a skill which has rightfully made them the source of the reference books of the world. One difficulty common to books of this class has been avoided by M. Vapereau, the fact that a name is left out of living biographies as soon as the person dies, though it is very often not until the consecration of death that any general interest is felt about him. In the "Dictionnaire des Contempo-

rains" no name is excluded of persons who were living on January 1, 1860, though they may have since deceased; only the article given to them is abbreviated. By comparison with the two previous editions the growing importance of the American rebellion as a subject for the "world's debate" may be ascertained. In the first one Abraham Lincoln was ignored; in the present one all the generals distinguished in the contest are given. Messrs. Stachelto & Co., of Paris and London, a firm renowned for their spirit and enterprise, are the publishers of the work.

—The completion of Mr. Howard Staunton's photo-zincographic facsimile of the famous "first folio" Shakespeare places that much coveted volume within the reach of all who can afford eight guineas for the critical luxury. All its typographical imperfections, whims, and oddities that have so exercised the ingenuity of commentators, are, of course, reproduced in it with lineal accuracy, and probably a new crop of emendations—conjectural and otherwise—will follow, from the increased accessibility of the volume to the popular curiosity. For convenience in reading, the fac-simile edition in a reduced size, printed from type in the ordinary way, by L. Booth, forming a small quarto, may be preferred; but although its accuracy is generally acknowledged, it wants the positive claim to authority that the actual identity of the photographic copy with the original confers on it. The indefatigable Mr. Halliwell, whose colossal edition of Shakespeare is nearing its completion, seems unwilling to abandon the subject, and already announces the commencement of another enterprise of nearly equal bulk. It will be apparently a miscellaneous collection of matter illustrating in its widest sense, by literary and pictorial details, the life, writings, and times of the dramatist, including reprints of rare tracts, etc. It will be published only for subscribers, and is got up in folio to range with Halliwell's folio Shakespeare.

—"The Fine Arts Quarterly Review," a periodical whose expensive and elegant appearance seemed suggestive of a short life only, and which, in fact, deceased, to the regret of connoisseurs, after two years' experience, when published by Messrs. Chapman & Hall, will be resuscitated in the spring, under the editorship of Mr. B. B. Woodward, librarian to the Queen. The publishers will be Messrs. Day & Son, whose name is a guaranty for the artistic excellence of the embellishments. Among the previous writers who will still contribute to its pages are Messrs. Rossetti, Hamerton, Palgrave, and other well-known names in art. The elaborate critical account of Gustave Doré and his works (with specimens), by Mr. Hamerton (author of a "Painter's Camp in the Highlands," etc.), given in the two last numbers of the "Fine Arts Quarterly," has caused a great demand for them, and has probably been of influence in the revival of the work. The literature of the fine arts will also be enriched by a new edition of the great work of Nayler, "Künstler Lexicon." The author has lately died, but had completed the revision of his work preparatory for the press a short time previously. As a vast magazine of information, where light is often thrown on the arts and artists of countries, when nothing about them can be found in their own special books, its reputation is universal.

—It is a fact scarcely conceivable amidst our plethora of daily supplies of paper and print that in the whole of Great Britain and Ireland there are only seventy-eight daily papers issued for the supply of some thirty millions of readers. This small number, too, is claimed as a great advance on the numbers ten years ago, under the old stamp law, when, in 1856, only thirty-two daily papers were in existence. The list now is divided thus: of dailies fifty-two are published in England, one in Wales, twelve in Scotland, twelve in Ireland, and one in the Channel Islands. The total number of newspapers for the United Kingdom of every kind is twelve hundred and fifty-seven. Of magazines the number and variety is comparatively much larger, as, including the quarterly reviews, they amount to two hundred and thirty-seven; of these one hundred and ninety-six are of decidedly religious character, representing the views of almost every shade of denominational peculiarity.

—One of the men who have recently passed away, scarcely in the enjoyment of the renown merited by his acquirements and discoveries, is Sir William Rowan Hamilton, professor of astronomy in the University of Dublin, and Astronomer Royal of England. This injustice of his contemporaries is attempted to be remedied by an "Eloge" which (following the French fashion) was recently delivered before the Royal Irish Academy by its president, Dean Graves, and is valuable as containing the first detailed account of the scientific and personal career of its subject. Hamilton was born in 1805. Such was his precocity that while an undergraduate of Trinity College, Dublin, at the age of twenty-one, he was appointed to the chair of astronomy vacated by Dr. Brinckley. In 1834 he received the royal medal the Royal Society for his discovery of conical refraction; and, in

the year next succeeding, his paper on mathematical and astronomical science gained him the applause of the first authorities of Europe. His last great invention, the discovery of "the calculus of quaternions," occupied twenty-two years in its elaboration. In early life he was devoted to poetry and literature. He learned modern languages almost by intuition. He anticipated by his own reflections some of the principal doctrines of Kant. He was remarkable for his proficiency in Greek, and twice gained vice-chancellor's prizes for English poetry. Like Descartes, Hamilton ranked metaphysics above mathematics in the hierarchy of science, and maintained that its highest province and the region of poetry lay in the same latitude. His views as to the connection (on which he strongly insisted) between the highest achievement of the modern analysis dealing with the infinitudes and imaginaries of space, and the shaping spirit of imagination which constitutes the soul of poetry, were communicated to Wordsworth. To the poet they were an entirely new revelation, and had the effect of raising his conception of the dignity of science and of its votaries. Sir W. R. Hamilton's manuscripts, in sixty volumes, many of them very large, are deposited in the library of Trinity College. A new edition of his "Calculus of Quaternions" is just published by Messrs. Longmans.

A PLEA FOR THE QUEEN'S ENGLISH.*

DEAN ALFORD'S book has enjoyed great and deserved success in England. The second edition, which lies before us, was issued, as we learn by the preface, in October, 1864, and in this date is to be found the only excuse, if it can be called an excuse, for the following passage. The author is speaking of the reflex action of language on national character, and through national character on national history:

"Look," he says, "to take one familiar example, at the process of deterioration which the Queen's English has undergone at the hands of the Americans. Look at those phrases which so amuse us in their speeches and books; at their reckless exaggeration and contempt for congruity; and then compare the character and history of the nation, its blunted sense of moral obligation and duty to man, its open disregard of conventional right where aggrandizement is to be obtained, and, I may now say, its reckless and fruitless maintenance of the most cruel and unprincipled war in the history of the world. Such examples as this (and they are as many as the number of the nations and their tongues) may serve to show that language is no trifle."

We do not care to comment on the bad taste of offering a gratuitous insult to a whole people, by holding them up as an example of depravity in a book on "speaking and spelling." The passage is chiefly valuable as an illustration of the condition in which the excessive word-culture of the English universities is apt to leave the reasoning faculty, even in such very able and excellent men as the Dean of Canterbury. He is throughout the volume before us very hard on the newspapers, and particularly the cheap and provincial papers, for their loose thinking and bad English; and yet we doubt very much whether either the *Morning Star* or the *Daily Telegraph* has ever furnished a better specimen of "reckless exaggeration" and contempt for facts than is to be found in the passage cited above. The true newspaper spirit—confidence in talking about things not well understood and haste in rushing to conclusions—runs through every line of it. As a matter of fact, a very large number of the phrases which "amuse" Englishmen in American speeches and books are old English, which have become obsolete in old England, as has been shown over and over again, certainly often enough for Dr. Alford to take some notice of it. Most of the solecisms and improprieties which deface our literature and parliamentary oratory are undoubtedly due, first, to the presence, and unavoidable presence, in Congress and the State legislatures of men of very imperfect education in the English sense of the word. In a new country most of the work of politics must be done by such men; but if we contrast American legislation with that of older countries, a subject to which Dr. Alford has probably not thought it worth his while to give much attention, we shall be driven to the conclusion that a correct knowledge of "the Queen's English" is not always the best preparation for the work of government. It is strange but true that, in spite of the "exaggeration and contempt for congruity" of our orators, there has not been a single reform made in the English law during the last fifty years which had not been previously adopted in America, if we except the admission of parties to suits to testify in their own behalf.

In the second place, there is a very much larger number of persons gifted with fluency in writing, and with the means of getting their compositions printed, here than in England. Consequently, we produce a relatively large number of books in which the authors' defects of education are only too

* "A Plea for the Queen's English: Stray Notes on Speaking and Spelling. By Henry Alford, D.D., Dean of Canterbury. Second edition." Alexander Strahan, London and New York. 1865.

faithfully reflected. Moreover, we have always had what the English have only had within a few years—a cheap newspaper press; and a cheap newspaper press will and must always reproduce in its columns the inaccuracies of speech and thought common amongst the majority of its readers. The cheap newspaper press of England, in spite of the influence upon it of aristocratic exemplars, is not one whit better in style or in tone than our own, and bids fair to become worse as the lowest and most ignorant class of English society—a class to which we have nothing to correspond—rises in political importance. Our newspaper press is, on the other hand, unquestionably improving, both in language, taste, and temper. The language of a people is not, however, to be judged from its most widely circulated periodicals, but from the best efforts of its best writers. Dr. Alford would be very unwilling, we have no doubt, to have English speech, to say nothing of English character, judged by either the English or the arguments of the cheap newspapers; and we must deny his right to apply this rule to us. If our national character is to be tested by our style, it must be by the style of our best authors. Of these, we say it with all deference, we have produced two at least in Dr. Alford's own lifetime—Washington Irving and Hawthorne—whose English for simplicity, manliness, purity, and elegance is at least equal to Dr. Alford's own. There is, too, a living American scholar, Mr. Marsh, whose knowledge of the history and structure of the English tongue is certainly not surpassed in England, and whose contributions to English philology are, we believe, even more widely known and more highly prized in England than here. We might extend the list further, but we trust we have said enough to show the absurdity of which Dr. Alford has been guilty, in inferring deterioration in our national character from the fact that certain phrases in our speeches and books "amuse" him and his friends. All changes in a language are, and must be, on Dr. Alford's theory, deterioration, and yet languages are constantly changing; and what is more to the purpose, the uneducated classes have in all countries far more to do with the changes than the learned have. Englishmen neither speak nor write the language of Shakespeare; but the England of to-day is certainly a better England than it was in the sixteenth century. What would Cicero or Quintilian have said to the Italian of Dante or Boccaccio, or the French of Racine or Voltaire? In fact, most of the languages of modern Europe are made up of corruptions, and will continue to be corrupted, in Dr. Alford's sense, from age to age; but is this a sign that the world is going backward? Is, in short, the attempt to judge of the condition of a people's morals by the extent to which they depart from an arbitrary standard of correctness in speech, not one of those fantastic theories which rhetoricians are constantly framing, in which facts are completely overlooked for the sake of tickling popular audiences and gratifying national vanity, and on which volumes of cheap philosophy are built up by such writers as Mr. Tupper, the "Country Parson," and our own irrepressible "Timothy Titcomb"? We are sorry to find the Dean of Canterbury serving out the same kind of wisdom.

To say anything worth listening to about the relation between our literature and our life, a writer would require some knowledge of American society, its history, antecedents, mental and moral characteristics, and its relation to external circumstances; but of this Dr. Alford is apparently quite innocent. We, for our part, believe that what people read is a far better index of their mental and moral condition than what their fools and blatters are pleased to write, and we have no hesitation in saying that if Dr. Alford will devote a little of his time to ascertaining the comparative circulation in this country and in England of the great works of English literature, both of past and present times, he will find that every book which he considers a model of style is read by three times as many people here as there. And we hold it to be "his duty to man," to use his own phrase, to sit down and study this whole subject carefully, which he evidently has never done, before he brings out another edition of his book.

It is almost cruel to comment now upon his opinion about the late war. Still, we cannot help calling attention to the fact that the logician who ascribes our "open disregard of conventional right where aggrandizement is to be obtained" to the badness of our English, is an Englishman writing under the rule of a sovereign who reigns over 100,000,000 of people thereabouts, of whom not quite thirty millions are her subjects from choice, the remaining seventy millions having been incorporated in her empire by a series of conquests ranging over the whole period of the national history, and marked throughout by violations of conventional right which somehow or other have procured for England amongst all foreign nations (the unprincipled rascals!) the reputation of being the most unscrupulous and most selfish of powers. And be it remembered, too, that he is writing of a country which did not, when he wrote in 1864, own one foot of conquered territory, except the wilderness wrested from Mexico in 1847, which

was immediately peopled, civilized, and endowed with liberty such as in Canterbury would seem license.

Dr. Alford's opinions as to the "fruitlessness" of our "cruel and unprincipled war" have been proved by events to be hasty and incorrect. They now need no refutation; but it is impossible to speak too severely of the "newspaper style" in which he seems to have formed and uttered them. To form even a tolerable opinion before the close of a war as to whether it is likely to prove fruitless or not, requires a very careful investigation, on the spot, of the resources, temper, character, military and political organization, and natural advantages of the belligerents, by a man familiar with military affairs. Of those of the American belligerents, Dr. Alford, like most Englishmen of his class and profession, knew little or nothing. His sole source of information about what was going on in America in 1864 was probably the veracious epistles of Dr. Charles Mackay, which were for this purpose about as valuable reading as Percy's "Reliques." Whether the war was "unprincipled" or not, required a very careful study of points in American history and American constitutional law which have for eighty years puzzled the wisest heads on this continent, but of which we dare say Dr. Alford has never heard; yet he does not hesitate to make up his mind about it and settle it in two lines, pronouncing it, with the most "reckless exaggeration," "the most cruel and unprincipled war in the history of the world." Dr. Alford has probably heard of the wars of Tamerlane and of Gengis Khan. If the reporter of the *Morning Star* wrote such stuff as this, would he not rap the poor fellow over the knuckles with terrible contempt?

We have left ourselves little space to speak of the book itself. We can only speak of it in terms of the highest praise. It does not go deep or go far. It is simply an attempt, by a man used to good society and who has studied the best English authors, to correct the vulgarisms, provincialisms, solecisms, and inaccuracies of all sorts current in the speech of everyday life, and to solve the doubts which even cultivated people constantly feel with regard to numerous expressions in very common use. A work of this kind is even more needed here than in England, as amongst us correct speaking is not, as there, a mark of a certain social position, and there is consequently less incentive to strive after it, even amongst people of education.

WALES, RELIGIOUSLY CONSIDERED.*

"LIKE most Welsh authors, the writer of this volume has "reverend" prefixed to his name. The sermons are good of their kind; but we value the book mainly for its essays, which embody much valuable information as to the past and present religious condition of the Welsh people. The one on the "Welsh Pulpit" is devoted to a critical examination of the peculiarities of the Welsh pulpit as contra distinguished from those of other nations, especially the English. His remarks on this subject are, in the main, just and discriminating, though we are surprised to find him speaking so approvingly of what the Welsh people call "dawn," or the habit of singing or chanting the sermon. Of course, he condemns those who carry it into extremes; but the habit is intrinsically bad, and to be reprobated under all circumstances.

The essay on the "Social Religion of Wales" is a synopsis of facts illustrating the religious condition of the principality for the last two hundred years.

Wales is comparatively but a small piece of land, on the western border of England, with an area of less than 8,000 square miles. Including Monmouthshire (which politically belongs to England), it contained at the last census 1,286,266 inhabitants. It is a mountainous country, but has a few beautiful valleys, such as Clwyd, Lowry, Wysg, and others; but generally it is hilly and rugged. And this has had a marked influence on the character of its people. It has helped to develop a taste for the muse, in which the Welsh take such delight; and the study of theology, of which they are such zealous advocates. A fondness for the strong and sublime is one of their characteristics; so marked, indeed, is this tendency, that strong words are too often made to supply the want of strong thoughts. The influence of this natural scenery is observed in the seriousness and sobriety of the nation.

In treating of the "Social Religion of Wales" our author only refers to the Dissenting denominations. The Established Church has so little hold upon the masses of the people that it is proper to style the Welsh a nation of Nonconformists, and whatever of personal piety or Christian benevolence exists in the Established Church in the principality is an infusion of the Dissenting spirit, and an emanation from it.

It has been found very difficult to obtain correct statistical information

* "Essays and Sermons; together with an Account of his Visit to America. John Thomas, Liverpool." Utica, N. Y., 1865. [Welsh.]

of the different religious denominations, but the following table is believed to be as nearly accurate as it is possible to make it :

Denominations.	Churches.	Ministers.	Members.	Hearers.	Sunday-school scholars.
Independents.....	809	405	94,952	102,400	86,483
Calv. Methodists.....	908	288	94,996	165,400	134,157
Baptists.....	508	322	58,292	54,000	49,453
Wesleyans.....	510	118	34,900	22,000	30,000
Primitive Methodists.....	100	—	—	10,000	—
Wesleyan Reformers.....	45	—	—	2,250	2,000
Unitarians.....	30	20	—	5,000	—
Quakers.....	7	—	—	—	—
Total.....	2,910	1,152	273,300	361,050	292,093

* Including rooms where there is occasional preaching.

From the above it will be seen that one-fourth of the population is immediately connected with the Dissenting denominations.

In the north the Calvinistic Methodists have a large preponderance of numbers. They have taken a strong hold upon the whole country; but in Anglesey and Carnarvon they may be said to reign. They are more numerous there than all the other denominations put together. The only portion of the south where they are strongest is Cardiganshire. In the south generally the Independents have the numerical superiority, but their main strength lies in Glamorganshire and Carmarthenshire. In Pembrokeshire and Monmouthshire the Baptists are strongest. Throughout the south they are very influential, but in the north their churches are generally weak. The Wesleyans are rather numerous in some portions of the north, and in Denbighshire and Flintshire are stronger than the Calvinistic Methodists. In one portion of Cardiganshire there are quite a number of Unitarians, and they have a few churches in other parts of the south, but in the north they have not a single congregation and but few persons hold their peculiar opinions. In tracing the history of the "Social Religion of Wales," it may properly be divided into three periods—the Puritan, Reformatory, and Literary.

The beginning of the Puritan period may be dated from 1639, when the first Dissenting church was formed in Slanfach by Rev. W. Wroth. Walter Cradoc, William Erbury, and W. Worth were cast out of the Established Church for refusing to read the "Book of Sports." Wroth gave himself to serve the church at Slanfach; Erbury formed a church in Cardiff; but Cradoc turned out into the "highways and by-ways," preaching the "unsearchable riches of Christ" through all parts of Wales. He found diligent and faithful co-laborers in Vavassor Powell, Morgan Lloyd, Morgan Howell, and others. During the time of the Commonwealth, Dissent made considerable progress, so that there were at least twenty-two Dissenting congregations in existence at the Restoration; and when the Uniformity Act was passed, in the time of Charles II., there were found 106 ministers of the Established Church in Wales who refused submission to that odious enactment. By 1736 the number of churches had increased to 130. This appears, it is true, but slow growth, considering how thoroughly religious the country is at the present day. From statistics collected by Dr. John Evans, about the year 1715, it appears that the Dissenters at that time numbered at least 30,000 church members.

At this period the ministers were generally educated men, and pulpit qualifications were held higher than at any period since. Great attention was paid to the *doctrines* of the Bible, and the people diligently instructed in the principles of the true faith. The following extract from Mr. Thomas, descriptive of a religious meeting during the Puritan period, strongly reminds us of those of the New England forefathers:

"Will the reader come with us to a Welsh congregation one hundred and eighty years ago? Let us start. It is a pleasant Sabbath morning in the beginning of May, and there are many going up into the house of the Lord. The hillside above the meeting-house is dotted with people afoot, coming along the by-paths, to worship; while on the rough, narrow road below may be seen others coming on horseback. The old church stands upon a rock overlooking a rippling stream, in a shadowy forest. It is a secluded spot, far from the noise and bustle of the world; and we can easily conjecture that the place had been selected in a time of persecution. The old church is a long, narrow, and dingy-looking building. Inside we find the altar and two large square seats on each side, evidently intended for some of the worshippers, a little better than the rest in the things of this world, while the middle is filled with benches having backs to them. There is a gallery at one end, with stone steps on the outside leading to it. The place is filled with devout, serious-looking people. Around the pulpit are a number of old persons having a very stately appearance. The cut of their garments and the length of their hair remind us of the old Jewish rabbis, but they are not bearded like them. There is the minister ascending the pulpit. He is a plain-looking man, but his earnest, impressive look makes us feel that we are in a holy place. We observe there more of seriousness than of warmth—more of devotion than of feeling; the meeting has more of the appearance of a teacher coming to instruct his class than a messenger of

peace come to preach the Gospel of everlasting life to lost sinners. The service commences at half-past nine, with what is called the 'short prayer'—ten to fifteen minutes in length. Then one of the psalms of Rev. Edmund Pryse is given out to sing; for Williams, Pantycelyn, is yet unborn; they sing the whole psalm, doubling the last two lines of the last stanza. Then a long chapter is read in a slow and impressive manner, followed by the 'long prayer' of twenty-five or thirty minutes. Then a psalm as before. The minister reads his text; the subject to-day is the 'Sonship of Christ.' The sermon is a good composition, evidently prepared with great care; but somehow the speaker talks more about the doctrine than to the people, and he seldom makes an application of the truth to the famishing souls before him. The delivery is slow but distinct, and in the same tone from beginning to end. The sermon lasts an hour and a half, and though the congregation exhibited no signs of emotion during the delivery, they show no signs of weariness at its close. After singing another psalm and a prayer of ordinary length the services are closed, and the people return to their homes, having had enough until another Sabbath. This is an imperfect picture of the social religion of that period. We would not judge it too severely, and though we regret the lack of feeling in the services, still we admire the attentive and devout manner in which the people listen, and the attempt of the preacher to teach and enlighten his congregation, rather than to please and amuse them."

In tracing the agencies at work in the religious regeneration of Wales at this period, we notice a most inexcusable historical omission on the part of Mr. Thomas. The Quakers are entirely overlooked, though they were a very influential religious body at that time, especially in the north. They were certainly quite numerous in the shires of Montgomery and Merioneth at the north, and in Radnorshire at the south, generally composed of men of the middle and higher classes of society, whose simple manners and devout piety was a most powerful agency in laying the foundation of the solid religious superstructure now existing in that part of the country. Large numbers of these people emigrated to Pennsylvania from 1682 to 1730, and settled on what is known as the "Welsh Tract," in Chester County, under an agreement with William Penn that they were to be allowed to conduct their own affairs in their own language and on their own method, subject, of course, to the general laws of the province, as will be seen by an examination of the archives of Pennsylvania. That they formed a considerable part of the early settlers is fully attested by the annals of the colony, and by the fact that about 1720 a Welsh book, by Ellis Pugh, a distinguished preacher among the Friends, was printed at Philadelphia, and soon after translated and published in English. In 1730 there was printed at the same place a large folio "Concordance of the Scriptures," in the Welsh language, by Rev. Abel Morgan, who emigrated from Radnorshire, and was pastor of a church in Pennypack. Of the first of these books we know of but one original copy, which may be found in one of the Philadelphia libraries; but it was subsequently reprinted in Wales, together with a sketch of the author's life. Of the "Concordance" there are several copies now in the country—one in the possession of Rev. B. W. Chidlaw, of Ohio, the eminent Sunday-school missionary. Ellis Pugh, after his arrival here, was sent back to Wales as a missionary by the Friends in Pennsylvania; but he returned in a few years, and died soon after in one of the Welsh settlements near Philadelphia. Among the Welshmen who assisted Penn in building up his province we may mention Thomas Lloyd, the first lieutenant-governor; David Lloyd, the first attorney-general; Dr. Thomas Wynne, speaker of the assembly; and Rowland Ellis, a prominent preacher and influential man among the Friends.

But to return from our digression. Our author next treats of the Reformatory or Methodist period, the time when the fathers of Calvinistic Methodism gave such a powerful impetus to religious advancement throughout the principality. This period was peculiarly distinguished for religious fervor. The subject of religion was presented to the people in a new light; it was made to possess a livelier interest for, and take a stronger hold upon, the public mind. We quote a paragraph in relation to the ministry of this period:

"They spoke from the heart to the heart. . . . Their words fell like molten lead upon the hearts of their hearers and convinced all that heard them that they were in earnest with their mission. Their ministry was eminent in its practical tendency; every truth was brought home to the conscience; and they gave special prominence to the fundamental doctrines of the Gospel. Human corruption, the vicarious sacrifice of our Saviour, justification by faith, and the influence of the Holy Spirit, were the burden of their message. These were the living principles of their ministry."

One of the natural developments of the lively religious interest of this period was a sense of the personal duty of individual Christians to preach, and not depend altogether on those filling the ministry. Consequently we find that quite a large number of men, noted for their piety and zeal, were put forward as exhorters; and, although they were mostly unlettered men, they made up in zeal what they lacked in education, and were instrumental in doing much good.

As time advanced and society became more settled, the more thoughtful began to feel the need of something that would be as it were a combination of the devout stateliness of the Puritan and the fiery zeal of the Methodist; something that would act upon the intellect as well as the sensibilities, and improve the understanding as well as elevate the affections. It was this desire that led to what Mr. Thomas somewhat inaptly calls the "literary period." The planting of Sunday-schools and the creation of a religious literature were its natural developments. The business of publishing received a new impulse, and commentaries, dictionaries, sermons, etc., made their appearance in large numbers. Soon various denominations began to publish magazines to advocate their claims and expound and defend their peculiar tenets. This is one reason why Welsh literature is so entirely religious in its character. The Bible is the national text-book, and theology the almost universal topic of discussion, not only among church members but among the people generally. This subjection of the popular mind to theological influences, a good thing abstractly considered, has operated injuriously on the intellect of the country by confining it too much to one channel. Few men have risen to eminence in Wales who were not somehow connected with the Christian ministry. The country, it is true, has produced men celebrated as poets and authors, but they have mostly been ministers or preachers. No popular movement was likely to succeed unless it was led by some minister of standing and reputation; and therefore men of genius and talent have generally turned their eyes to this profession as the natural one in which their abilities were to develop themselves.

Even the popular desire for amusements has taken a religious direction. We believe there is not a single theatre in the principality; but the "Sassiwn," the "Gymnafa," and Thanksgiving Day are popular institutions, and will draw together more people than anything else, not excepting the annual "Eisteddfod," or Literary Festival. This has been carried to extremes, so that the multiplicity of religious meetings may be regarded as a serious defect in the social religion of the country. It has other drawbacks that mar its symmetrical beauty; but they are as spots on the face of the sun, so that it may truly be said that the "Social Religion of Wales" is its crown of glory.

A SOUTHERN ABDIEL.*

It is worth while to learn something concerning a man who, twice in his lifetime, was obliged to ask himself whether he or the community about him was insane, and appears in truth alone to have preserved his wits. The subject of this biography wrote, in 1830, to a friend who belonged to the party of nullification in South Carolina:

"I am devilishly puzzled to know whether my friends are mad or I beside myself. Let us hope we shall make some discovery before long which will throw light on the subject, and give the people the satisfaction of knowing whether they are in their right minds. When poor Judge W— used to fancy himself a teapot, people thought he was hypochondriac; but there are in the present day very good heads filled with notions that seem to me not less strange. That we are treated like slaves, that we are slaves in fact, that we are worse than slaves, and made to go on all fours, are stories that seem to me very odd, and make me doubt whether I am not under some mental eclipse, since I can't see what is so plain to others."

A little more than thirty years later, when a stranger enquired of Mr. Petigru the way to the lunatic asylum in Columbia, he was pointed to the capitol where the legislature was then in session.

The reader will not find Mr. Petigru's attitude in these two periods set forth with equal fulness and distinctness; and in the memoir of a Union man, composed at the very focus of a still active rebellion, he must not expect any greater liberty of expression than we know to have been tolerated within the Confederacy. Neither can the stream rise higher than its source. Mr. Grayson's views may be inferred from the fact that in 1850 he wrote a pamphlet deprecating secession, and from an incidental remark in the present volume that secession is the "extremest remedy of the Constitution." Hence, his opposition to the late attempt at revolution seems to have been grounded on its folly, chiefly or solely, and if his sympathy with Mr. Petigru went no further, it would be natural for him to slight or suppress the loftier sentiment of his friend. Mr. Petigru himself, in a letter to Robert C. Winthrop, dated Charleston, February 25, 1861, declines to adjudicate between the two parties to the impending civil war, and adds: "I venture to say that whatever may be thought of the motives of the actors, their folly will be as much the subject of wonder as of censure." Before the year had closed he had an opportunity of resisting the despotism of the Confederacy, which he did so manfully as to draw in question, said his opponent, the district-attorney, "not only the constitutionality of the sequestration law

passed by the Congress of the Confederate States, but the very authority of that Congress itself, and the solidity of the government which it represents." And because Mr. Petigru had said he might have recognized the authority of South Carolina in a similar case, the same official thought the admission "remarkable from such a quarter," though "accompanied by the explanation that such submission would be given only because there could be no successful resistance to the tyranny."

As a personal tribute to the character of Mr. Petigru, the volume before us is more satisfactory. He was, we gather, derived from Irish and French ancestors, and bore the names of his paternal grandfathers. His Huguenot blood, according to the ethnological speculations of Gliddon, Nott, Fitzhugh, and De Bow, made him a birthright member of the order of "chivalry," with a divine commission to rule over negroes and Yankees and other inferior stocks. Early poverty forbade the exercise of this prerogative, and the youth, neglecting the idle and vagabond sports of his peers, devoted himself assiduously to study. He passed from the school-bench to the teacher's chair, and finally to the bar, in each and every grade *facile princeps*. His biographer, who had himself "in graceful verse delineated the advantages which the Southern bondman possessed over the European laborer," takes pleasure in recalling his occasional conversation with the muses, but it has nothing to distinguish it from that of any susceptible young man. Tender-hearted and affectionate in all his human relations, he was generous in his living and in the practice of his profession. He was so generous that his friends became alarmed for his fortune, and persuaded him to adopt the homeopathic remedy of running into debt to avoid embarrassment. He engaged "in the ordinary and legitimate proceeding of investing his professional profits in a plantation and negroes."

"It was the approved Carolina custom in closing every kind of career. No matter how one might begin, as lawyer, physician, clergyman, mechanic, or merchant, he ended, if prosperous, as proprietor of a rice or cotton plantation. It was the condition that came nearest to the shadow of the colonial aristocracy which yet remained."

The result was not pecuniarily successful. The slaves, we are told, became sleek, fat, and proprietors in their way, but the crops were unprofitable, and the estate was swept away in the financial panic of 1837. The disappointed, but not discouraged, planter found himself not at the close of his career and in affluence, but at the beginning of a new struggle with the encumbrance of a heavy debt. This he spent many toilsome years in honorably discharging.

Mr. Petigru was a reluctant politician, and resigned his position as attorney-general for a nomination to the State senate only from his desire, if possible, to defeat the nullifiers. But they were too strong for him. How the election was conducted for him and his opponent is thus described:

"The parties supporting them resorted to every device, fair or foul. They bribed with money, with promises of office, with liquor and riotous living. They had their lock-up houses, where voters were imprisoned for days before the election, and kept continually drunk to secure their votes. Each prison had its keeper, responsible for the safe custody of his captives. Thousands of dollars were contributed by patriotic gentlemen and ladies to defray the expenses of these salutary provisions for the freedom of elections and the welfare of the people. The city was a model republic for the time being, with no shadow of difference between the two parties in the purity of their proceedings."

In small things and in great Mr. Petigru followed his sense of duty, no matter how it conflicted with public sentiment. His professional eminence and his well-known nobility of character saved him from the evil consequences of this independence, and won for him a respect which shielded him from harm and even from social proscription. When, in the second year of the rebellion, the legislature cast about for some one fitted to codify the laws of the State, he was selected, and his political heresies forgotten or forgiven. This last public service, like all the rest, he rendered faithfully and cheerfully, and died, having done what one sane man could to obstruct the evil counsels of his demented fellow-citizens. They paused long enough to do him reverence at his funeral, and then relapsed into violence and treason.

MIND IN NATURE.*

In this book Professor Henry James Clark treats of the origin of life, the five great animal groups, and the correspondence in the mode of development of animals with the type of the grand division to which each belongs. Nothing short of a full review would be sufficient for an examination of his discussion of the important questions involved in the subjects just mentioned. The work is largely made up of Prof. Clark's original observations, and contains admirable illustrations of details of

* "James Louis Petigru. A Biographical Sketch. By William J. Grayson." Harper & Bros., New York. 1866.

* "Mind in Nature. By Clark." New York: Appleton & Co. 1865.

structure and modes of development, as seen by him through the microscope, and drawn with his own hands. It gives evidence of patient research on his part, requiring the greatest skill in the use of the microscope, and discrimination in interpreting the appearances brought to his notice. In the discussion of general questions he is not fortunate in his mode of presenting them, is often obscure, failing to give the reader a definite idea of the points he attempts to make clear, and sometimes he falls into singular errors. As an example, we will take the last chapter—which is intended to prove that the mode of development of animals corresponds to the type of the grand division to which each belongs. He gives good illustrations of the development of individual members of each division, well described and well figured, but we are convinced that the reader will utterly fail in forming a definite conception of what the type of each division actually is. In fact, by the author's inattention to the arrangement of some of the details, one would be easily led into positive errors. Taking the turtle as his instance of the development of a vertebrate, one would suppose that the amnios, which is wholly absent in the class of fishes, was characteristic of the whole grand division. We are sure that Prof. Clark meant no such thing. Such oversights as this, and some errors which we could point out, such, for example, as the asserted existence in the vertebrates of the "nervous collar," common to all invertebrates, and of a gustatory ganglion included in this collar (p. 127), are open to criticism.

In treating of the origin of life on the surface of the globe, Professor Clark endeavors to show that life originated through the agency of physical causes, it being clearly maintained, however, that these physical causes were nothing else than the manifestations of the will of the Creator. His line of argument, stated in a few words, we understand to be this:—As we study the conditions of the development of animals in the descending series, physical causes play a more direct if not a larger part. The mammalian egg can be fully developed only within the parent, though here through heat and nourishment supplied from her body. In the bird development takes place out of the body, normally through the heat of the parent; but heat of the same amount from any other source is sufficient. In reptiles the ordinary heat of the atmosphere suffices; and the lower we go in the series, the less the dependence upon the parent both for heat and nourishment. The effect of light in addition to heat in the development of plants is adduced as still further proof of the agency of physical causes. But in all these cases the germ on which these agents act is derived from a parent. May we not go one step further, and suppose that a new being may originate wholly under the influence of physical agents? Our author believes we can, and accordingly treats, under the first head mentioned above, somewhat at length of spontaneous generation, a subject which for the last few years has excited sharp discussion in the French Academy, under the lead of Pasteur against the doctrine, and Pouchet for it. As appears from the last "Comptes Rendus," the dispute continues with as much acrimony as ever. Professor Clark believes this mode of generation proved, and adduces the experiments of Professor Jeffries Wyman in support of his conclusion. We must say at the outset, that we do not think the experiments referred to sustain him; nor does Professor Wyman himself claim that they are decisive in regard to this question. We see nothing in them, as reported by Professor Clark, which warrants the statement that "beings with motion, undoubted living beings, were produced where life could not possibly have existed previously." The previous existence of life is just the point at issue. It is certain that living organisms have appeared in solutions of organic matter, contained in hermetically sealed flasks, after these had been exposed to boiling water for a period varying from a few minutes to three hours. But to prove these organisms spontaneously generated it must be shown that the flasks were freed of all such living beings within them at the beginning of the experiment, and kept free from all such from without during the progress of it. The latter condition is ensured by the mode of sealing. But with regard to the first it may be fairly asked, are the organisms found in the flasks after the boiling the survivors of this process, or are they truly newly formed individuals? The argument to prove that they outlive the boiling is based almost solely on the earlier experiments of Schultz, and the later, more varied, and, in most respects, more exact researches of Pasteur. Other observers have seen organisms appear where both of these experimenters assert they do not appear. Pasteur asserts that exposure to boiling water for "two or three" minutes destroys life, while the experiments of Pouchet, of Professor Wyman, and the still later ones of Professor Childs of Oxford, and of many other investigators, show that after a much longer boiling than this life is still manifested. The theory of spontaneous generation, like any other, must be decided solely by the accumulation of experimental evidence, of which there is not yet enough. In view of the uncertainty of the whole subject, Professor Clark, we believe,

would have been wiser had he treated spontaneous generation as only a probable and not as an observed process.

In connection with this subject, we will call attention to some very remarkable observations of Prof. Clark, which have an important bearing on the question whether "dead" organic matter in the process of dissolution can assume vital activity. In the ordinary process of nutrition, the dead, cooked, and digested food becomes living and active muscle, nerve, or brain. Whence the life and activity? Were they imparted to it by contact with the living organism, or were they "conserved" in it, in a latent form, the living organism affording only an opportunity for their manifestation? If Prof. Clark's observations are trustworthy, it would seem that dead or organic structures contain a certain amount of vital force in a latent state, and that this may be made manifest without recourse to another living organism. In a communication read to the American Academy of Arts and Sciences he informs us that, on examining water in which muscular fibre was macerating, he found swimming about in it living organisms, moving with great rapidity, which he supposed to be vibrios, from which they could not at first be distinguished. But, on a more thorough examination, he was able to demonstrate the fact that the supposed vibrios were nothing else than detached muscular fibrillae. He further states that he saw many times these fibrillae begin their vibratory motions when only partially detached, and swim off when wholly freed. Another fact of the same nature was observed in the component cells of a decomposing jelly-fish (*Aurelia flavidula*), which, during putrefactive decomposition, became at first loosened, and then briskly agitated by means of slender processes, motionless during life, with which each cell is attached to the adjoining ones. These were not vibrating cilia. When these cells at length became free, "each moved independently and in every direction." Somewhat similar observations were reported many years since by Schleiden, and afterwards by Pineau; but their microscopes were of an inferior quality, and the evidence adduced was far from satisfactory. Knowing Prof. Clark's reputation for skill as an observer, and in view of the excellence of the instrument which he uses, we are strongly inclined to believe that his statement is trustworthy, and that, if there be any question, it is whether the locomotion, witnessed in the separated fibrillae and cells, was due to vital or purely physical force. He has repeated the observation many times and in several kinds of tissues; but the fact, if it be one, is of such vast importance not only as bearing upon the question of spontaneous generation, but upon our conceptions of vital force, that it should rest at least on the concurrent testimony of several independent observers.

In treating of the egg, Professor Clark maintains views somewhat different from those of most naturalists, claiming that the egg is not simply the structure out of which the animal is formed, but is the animal itself, and is but one of a series of phases through which it passes by insensible gradations from the condition of a homogeneous fluid. Furthermore, the egg, being a developed structure, presents different stages, in any one of which it may be arrested in different members of the animal series, as may be seen by a comparison of a bird's egg with that of some of the infusorial animals; both agree in having a vitelline membrane or cell wall; that of the bird has, in addition, the germinal vesicle and germinal spot; but the other has neither; yet there was a stage of the bird's egg when these were not yet formed, viz., that stage immediately following the fluid condition. From the moment when the plastic fluid was first separated and began to differentiate into wall and contents, individual life may be said to have begun; and from this time onward we have only a series of gradational changes separated from each other by no sharp limits. From this time the egg absorbs materials, and by its inherent properties modifies and converts them into its substance. The Amœba, so simple in its structure but so wonderful in its properties, is brought forward as an illustration of the perfect individual having the same structure, or, more correctly, the same absence of structure, as the egg in its fluid or nearly fluid stage; without further complication, it absorbs, secretes, travels about, secures and digests its food, perceives and reproduces.

Professor Clark, who has made a special study of the subject, and has an especial fitness for it, maintains, as regards the egg, the doctrine of free cell development. It is a curious fact in the history of microscopic observations, that Schwan and Schleiden, the fathers of the "cell theory," were of the firm conviction that all cells originated anew, having no genetic connection with other cells, while among the latest observers, at the head of whom stands Virchow, there are many who have come to just the opposite conclusion, that no cell is so developed. Notwithstanding Virchow's dogma, *omnis cellula e cellula*, we believe his generalization is too sweeping, and that the egg which is a cell is not a derived, but a newly formed, structure. The vegetable physiologists have arrived long

since at a similar conclusion with regard to the "embryo-cell," which originates anew in the fluid of the embryo-sac. The first step in the formation of the egg is the separation from the ovary of "a minute aggregation of fluid matter;" but this fluid has not a uniform density throughout, though it is not yet a cell, and it reflects light somewhat differently on the two sides, in consequence of one side consisting chiefly of albumen and the other of albumen and a minute quantity of oil; the germinal vesicle or the nucleus, and the germinal spot or the nucleolus, and the outer cell-wall or the vitelline membrane—in fact all that makes it a cell—are subsequent formations.

In recognizing the existence of five great groups of animals instead of four, Professor Clark deviates from the course pursued by the most eminent zoologists of the present day, including Agassiz and Milne-Edwards. The Cuvierian group of Radiates, in addition to such animals as corresponded with the mode of structure which the term indicates, comprised others, as the infusoria, which in no way conformed to it. When it was found that some of these were embryos and others locomotive spores of plants, it was hoped that the difficulty would be removed. But there still remains a group of animals which, in the estimation of good and careful observers, can be resolved neither into plants nor into embryonic forms of other radiates or of higher animals, but are themselves completely developed, traceable through all their stages, and have a type of structure peculiar to themselves. Another great division—that of Protozoa—has been established for them, and this division must be admitted at least provisionally.

We have touched upon only a part of the subjects treated by Professor Clark. His book certainly contains many important suggestions and some positive contributions to science, faithfully worked out, but it is marred by a want of method and by occasional errors, some of which are, doubtless, due to too great faith in the statements of others.

COPPÉE'S GRANT.*

Books following in the wake of such great events as those which have recently excited and interested us possess necessarily a charm given them by the facts they describe which it is difficult to separate from the intrinsic merits of the description. An honest pride in the doings of Grant and Sherman seeks gratification in the reading of everything about them that is written. Besides this, some millions of Americans have a personal or family connection with at least one, it may be many, of the battle-fields of the South; Mr. Vallandigham and Mr. Cox even must feel an antagonistic interest in the war which they opposed, while generals successful and unsuccessful, lieutenants known and unknown, privates of four years or ninety days, are anxious to study the campaigns they fought. Mr. Coppée's book, however, invites the special attention of a small class, and, when the incidental attractions which at present enhance its value are out of date, will be judged by its merits as a work of military criticism. As a critic of military operations, Mr. Coppée has failed, and failed not from the disadvantage of undue haste under which he seems to have labored, but from a lack of ability to accomplish what he has undertaken. He is rather a compiler and condenser than a critic, and wants that professional insight which must be the first qualification for a reviewer of Grant's career. The sketch of the last Richmond campaign, for instance, is an elaboration of the general's report, instead of a critical account of the movements which he conducted; the enlarged edition, too, not having in style the merits of the original, does not easily bear comparison with it. The author throughout appears to draw his ideas from others, rarely to weigh, consider, and search carefully from a self-selected point of observation. Most people know by this time the general features of Grant's victories—the insertion of his forces between Johnston and Pemberton, the assaults and siege of Vicksburg, the crossing of the Rapidan, the advance of the rebels up the Valley to Washington, their repulse and destruction by Sheridan, the ever changing still unchanged plans of the Lieutenant-General—but they wish to know something more. The military profession, at least, wish to look at these operations from a professional and critical point of view.

As a narrative for purposes of general information, the descriptions of Western operations are better, Mr. Coppée having had access to larger sources of information than of the Eastern; but even here there is sometimes a lack of clearness, due mainly to the absence of good maps, an inexcusable defect, and in some measure to the want of a thorough grasp of the events described. Had the Virginia campaign been examined as much in detail as have those in the West, the result would have been a popular military life,

of value in proportion to the care with which the abstracts and compilations were made, though without any merits of special interest to military men; as it is, this part of the book is of little profit. But if this is the author's object, maps are essential, particularly one of the field of operations about Chattanooga, and another showing the extent of the immense campaign which began with the occupation of Paducah, ending with the capture of Vicksburg and the division of the Confederacy.

Mr. Coppée gives an interesting and curious reason for the defeat of our army on the first day of Pittsburg Landing. Halleck, he says, ordered the position in general terms to be fortified, but C. F. Smith opposed it, an opposition confirmed by Grant and all the division commanders, on the ground of injury to the morale of the soldiers and our ability to resist any attack. Besides this, a wide gap was left between Prentiss and McClelland. Beauregard, taking a natural advantage of this position, surprised our defenceless troops, went into the gap and hurled our army back. But why this gap should have been left open, whose fault it was, and why General Grant should then have held an opinion which seems now so strange, is left unexplained. Mr. Coppée, indeed, appears often too little inclined to enquire where blame is deserved; the only officer who gets it very roundly is Colonel Murphy, who surrendered Holly Springs, and thus defeated the first Vicksburg campaign. That campaign is on the whole perhaps the best in the book.

Coupon Bonds. By J. T. Trowbridge. (Ticknor & Fields, Boston.)—If there is any one who understands so thoroughly the New England life and character, and describes it so accurately and with so much sympathy and humor, as the author of "Neighbor Jackwood," we are not acquainted with him. Mr. Trowbridge has qualifications as a tale-writer which render all his productions respectable and even exceptional; but he is strongest when he keeps the Connecticut River, the Green Mountains, and Massachusetts Bay in sight. In "Cudjo's Cave" he showed very clearly that he had strayed from his native soil. For, if he is a master in his way, that way is not of the broadest. He cannot, like Gérôme, paint you an Arab, Turk, Egyptian, Russian; he cannot call the past before you—the Roman amphitheatre, the Areopagus, augurs, players, philosophers; but he will give you the Yankee of to-day with absolute fidelity, and no historical work can be better—it ranks with the "Biglow Papers" and the domestic poems of Whittier, and will be prized as much hereafter. Readers of the "Atlantic Monthly" have already had their laugh over "Coupon Bonds," which appeared as a serial in that magazine. It will bear a second and a third perusal, and still Mr. Ducklow's tribulation with his "coupons" will provoke their mirth. Indeed, we fear the paper covers of this handy little brochure will not outlast the interest of the contents.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

SECOND ANNUAL REPORT OF THE [MASSACHUSETTS] BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES, January, 1866.—REPORT OF THE SPECIAL COMMISSION ON THE HOURS OF LABOR AND THE CONDITION AND PROSPECTS OF THE INDUSTRIAL CLASSES [MASSACHUSETTS]. February, 1866. Wright & Potter, Boston.

THE DOVE'S NEST, AND BENNY AVERET. By E. L. Llewellyn. Ashmead & Evans, Philadelphia. (James Miller, New York.)

ON LEAIA LEIDYI—CYPRICARDIA LEIDYI. Descriptions of Fourteen New Species of Melnidae, etc. By Isaac Lea, LL.D. Merrihew & Son, Philadelphia.

FALSE PRIDE; OR, TWO WAYS TO MATRIMONY. T. B. Peterson & Bros., Philadelphia.

Fine Arts.

ART EXHIBITIONS AND SALES.

IN the first of a series of articles on the French and Belgian pictures New York, which was contained in THE NATION for January 11, we ascribed to the Gambart collection in Tenth Street a relative value higher than some well-informed people thought was right. These were the words we allude to: ". . . when the visitor, accustomed to average American pictures, goes to see European pictures which may naturally be assumed to be above the average European merit. The pictures which are selected to be sent to this country for sale are generally of a certain order of merit; embody much skill and represent great reputations." Some who know contemporary French art thought that the pictures brought here are not above the average European merit.

The only question is, What is the average merit of European art? We think it is lower than the average of Mr. Pilgeram's pictures at Tenth Street, or of Mr. Knoedler's and Mr. Avery's continually changing collections. We think, poorly instructed as most picture buyers may be, that they are not taken with unmixed chaff, and that it "does not pay" to import, pay boxing, freight, and duties upon, and run a risk for, any works of art below a certain standard. Every public and private sale proves that fact. We think the new collection of French pictures, now on exhibition at the Derby gallery, is going to prove it conclusively.

*Grant and His Campaigns: a military biography. By Henry Coppée, A.M. Editor of the "United States Service Magazine." New York: Charles B. Richardson; Cincinnati: C. F. Vent & Co.; Springfield: W. J. Holland. 1866. 8vo, pp. 18—521.

This collection more fairly represents the "average" than the Gambart collection. Let any one who is familiar with annual exhibitions of pictures in Paris, London, Munich, or Berlin remember how large they are and how small a percentage of each is of any peculiar value. Fifty pictures, perhaps, by *esprits d'élite*, as Gustave Planché was fond of saying, fifty more by promising pupils of the *esprits d'élite*, and a hundred more, large and small, minute and broad, careful and sketchy, which for some reason or other attract attention—such will be the two hundred among the two thousand. Now it seems to us that Mr. Gambart, in a spirit of exclusiveness, has tried to select pictures from among the first three classes named. The first class it is hard to get representatives of; we have often shown how poorly most of the leaders are represented by the pictures that come to America. But out of class two and class three are taken nearly all the pictures of which we have spoken at different times; and, therefore, we said that they are, taken together, above the average.

Now, in this new collection of "pictures, the contributions of artists of the French Etching Club," there is a strong contingent of the outsiders, the fourth class, the horde of pictures that nobody looks at unless compelled to do so. There are better pictures in it than these (else it would fall hopelessly below the average—for even with them we think it is rather below), but its prominent characteristic is inferiority to what we have learned to expect of French art exhibitions in New York. The three pictures by M. Chiffart are examples of work which it is hardly worth while to import; at least there is no reason for bringing them to America unless they can be sold to advantage, and we hope that will not be the case. M. Chintreuil's "Watering Place," M. Hereau's picture called, in strange English, "The Sheep's Return," M. Pons's four "Decorative Panels," M. Ribot's three pictures, and M. Yongkind's or Jongkind's two—all these, though we do not class them as equal in merit, are alike undesirable and unwelcome. There is a great deal of actual rubbish in the collection with which it is not desirable to spend time; and of the important pictures and other works of art therein, we defer consideration until another time.

—The auction sales of pictures are an important part of the news of the day. Mr. Avery's collection, of which we spoke last week, has been sold—perhaps, on the whole, at fair prices, although some important works brought less than represents their relative value. When Mr. Church's "Twilight in the Wilderness" was sold for four thousand three hundred dollars, it is little to say that M. Lambinet's large landscape, "Autumn," was sold too low at three hundred and fifty, and William Hunt's drawing of fruit cheaply at one hundred and eighty. As regards the latter, though, it is perhaps surprising that it should have brought as much as it did, for water-color drawings are not popular among the picture-buying community. It is a little to their discredit the stir and movement that begin whenever the last oil-painting is sold and the drawings come on, two-thirds of the audience disappearing and the proceedings becoming at once brisker and less solemn. Some one, however, bought the Doré drawing of "Angels Watching over Moses" for three hundred dollars. It and the Hunt were next neighbors—205 and 206 of the catalogue. If they had changed prices, both would have been sold at a fairer valuation.

Other sales are in progress. Mr. Hall's took place Monday, and Messrs. Miner & Somerville's gallery, having been stripped of the pictures of that collection, is filled up again with a large lot of American pictures for a sale which has long been advertised. More important than all, the Gambart collection is to be sold—not all of it, probably, but the greater part. There is to be a new catalogue prepared for the sale, which we have not yet received.

Science.

SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

A COMMITTEE of the French Academy, to which was referred for examination the process of one Louvel for preserving grain in rarefied air, has reported as follows: The apparatus employed consists simply of one or more sheet-iron cylinders, provided with a man-hole on top for the introduction of the grain and a hopper below through which it can be discharged. A partial vacuum having been made within the cylinders by means of an air-pump, it was found that this could be practically maintained during six months or more. All the insects which attack grain, and particularly the weevil, were quickly destroyed by the rarefied air of the cylinders. The grain was perfectly well preserved during the six months devoted to the experiments of the committee.

—In the reports of the juries of the Dublin International Exhibition of 1865 is an account of certain "wood-stuffs" for paper-making, prepared by

Roether, of Cassel, in Germany. The samples were made from four kinds of wood—the linden, aspen, pine, and Scotch fir. The best qualities of these, it seems, can be sold for 13 and 16 shillings the 110 lbs. "The samples of papers," says the report, "made from mixtures of rags with different proportions of these stuffs are excellent, and show a decided progress in wood-paper manufacture since 1862. Among them may be specially mentioned a good writing paper, containing 45 per cent. of Scotch fir stuff; an excellent lapping paper, containing 65 per cent.; and a colored lapping tissue paper, which is exceedingly strong, containing 50 per cent. of wood-stuffs." No account of the processes employed in producing these stuffs is given in the report.

—The observations of Lionel Beale on the minute anatomy of nerves, published in the Transactions of the Royal Society for 1862 and 1865, are important additions to the previous knowledge of the subject. The physiology of the nervous system has always followed in the path of anatomical discovery, and no true theory of its mode of action is likely to be framed until the details of its structure are at least approximately made out. Each successive year the microscope reveals something which requires the modification of existing views. It has already shown the fallacy of the belief, recently general, that nerves form a direct and insulated communication between the brain and the sensitive surfaces or contractile fibres, for it is now a matter of demonstration that a large portion of the nerve-fibres end or begin in the spinal cord itself, where they are connected with the nerve-cells; further, these fibres have been found in many instances to branch freely, so that impressions received on the ends of the branches may be transmitted to the centre by a common trunk; lastly, several sensitive nerve-fibres coming from as many different trunks may be received into one and the same cell. How nerve-fibres end and how they begin is still one of the most important questions for the physiologist.

By better methods of preparation, and by the use of the higher powers of the microscope, Dr. Beale has succeeded in showing that both the central and peripheral portions of the nervous conductors are much more complex than had been supposed. First of all, he adduces evidence to prove that the cells in the ganglia, which he has especially studied, have at least two nerve-fibres connected with each of them, and that the so-called "bipolar" and "apolar" cells of microscopists, or the cells connected with but one fibre, or not connected with any, have no existence; secondly, the nerve-fibres in their peripheral portions divide into numerous branches, some of them of exceeding minuteness, and form a complex network, which is spread out either over the tactile surfaces or the contractile fibres; thirdly, this network is intermediate between two or more nerve-fibres which connect it with the nervous centres, or, in other words, it is intermediate between the out-going and in-going currents of nervous force. The central cell, the out-going and in-going conductors, and the intermediate network may be looked upon as the unit of the nervous system—the first being the dynamic portion, from which influences emanate and to which they are transmitted, the second the connecting fibres, and the third the place where nervous force is delivered, or impressions are received. The whole nervous system may, in general terms, be considered an aggregation of such units.

Dr. Beale claims to have made the further observation that the dynamic portions, namely, the nerve-cells, are continually undergoing decay and renovation, certainly in the young and adult, and probably in all periods of life. This, if true, shows the existence of a process entirely different from that previously supposed to exist, namely, that of simple molecular and not structural change. The plates accompanying the memoir, if true to nature, and his great skill as a manipulator and microscopic observer justifies the belief that they are, give evidence of the correctness of his descriptions.

—There exists upon the coast of Greenland a remarkable deposit of a mineral called cryolite, which is composed of fluoride of sodium and fluoride of aluminum. This mineral, but a few years ago a mere mineralogical rarity, has suddenly become the raw material of a considerable industry. During the last ten years it has been mined to a large extent and sent to Europe, particularly to Denmark and to Germany, and recently it has been brought in quantity to this country for the purpose of making carbonate of soda. About a year ago the Pennsylvania Salt and Alkali Manufacturing Company sent out to Copenhagen and obtained from the owners of the cryolite mines and from the Danish Government the right of mining this material. Ships were then chartered in England, in Quebec, and in our own ports, to proceed to Ivigtut, in Greenland, and take cargoes of the mineral to Philadelphia. Six thousand tons or more have already been imported and subjected to treatment at the works of the company, near Pittsburg. In the process of manufacture a mixture of pulverized cryolite and lime is calcined, by which means there is formed an insoluble fluoride of calcium and a soluble com-

pound of alumina and soda—an aluminate of soda. The latter is dissolved out with water and the solution treated with carbonic acid, so that carbonate of soda shall be formed, and the alumina thrown down as an insoluble precipitate. The solution being now evaporated, a very pure product of carbonate of soda is obtained, or the solution is at once boiled with hydrate of lime and the carbonate thus economically converted into caustic soda. It is evident that the alumina which is precipitated, as above-mentioned, may be advantageously used in the manufacture of alum or of sulphate of alumina.

—The quantity of coal dug in Great Britain in the year 1864 appears, by the returns of Professor Robert Hunt, to have been 92,787,873 tons. This would yield, if employed in steam engines of good construction, an amount of available force about equal to that of the whole human race. But in the combustion of coal not less than ten times this amount of force is actually set free, nine-tenths being at present unavailable on account of the defective character of the methods of application now in use.

—A new test, of apparent merit, for atropine, the intense poison extracted from belladonna, is mentioned in the German papers. On warming the atropine with diluted sulphuric acid, in a porcelain dish, an intense and exceedingly persistent odor is developed. This is so characteristic that, after a little practice, one can detect the presence even of imponderable traces of atropine by means of it. The sulphuric acid must be diluted to such an extent that it will no longer develop sulphurous acid on being boiled with organic matter.

—A method of removing fusel oil from potato brandy has recently been published in Germany. It consists in placing a small vessel containing some vegetable fatty oil—like olive oil—in such position that the alcohol vapor shall pass through it during the distillation. Since the fatty oil has a greater affinity for fusel oil than for alcohol, it will retain the former, while the latter goes forward to the condenser. The process is interesting as being a rational improvement upon the old empirical methods of distilling spirit over almond bran or bruised almonds, which, as it now appears, owed their efficacy to the fatty oil which is contained in the almonds.

—The well-known Spanish chemist, Reynoso, of Havana, proposes to bring about a radical change in the present system of sugar boiling, and to remove the water from cane juice not directly by means of heat, as now, but by cold. His process depends upon the familiar fact that water in freezing excludes foreign matters, and separates itself almost completely from the substances which it had previously held in solution. Instead, then, of concentrating the juice by boiling, Reynoso subjects it to such a degree of cold that it shall be converted into a magma composed of small particles of ice and a dense syrup. By means of a centrifugal machine, the ice-powder can now be readily separated from the strong syrup with which its interstices are filled, and the concentration of the syrup may then be quickly completed in the ordinary vacuum pans. The author of the process hopes, by means of it, to avoid the various complex reactions which occur when cane juice is exposed to the simultaneous action of air and heat—reactions by which much sugar is now destroyed during the process of manufacture. He claims, moreover, to have found that a weak syrup, marking only 6° of Beaumé's saccharometer, can be converted, by congelation, into ice and a syrup of 30°. Of course this process would have to be used in connection with some system of artificial refrigeration, such, for example, as that used in England by oil refiners, in which intense cold is produced by the expansion of air which has been previously compressed by mechanical means.

—The opium of Upper Egypt was formerly in excellent repute, but has of late years come to be very poor in morphine, and is now held in little esteem. In discussing the matter, M. Gastinel, the director of the Garden of Acclimation at Cairo, attributes the cause of this impoverishment to the system of excessive irrigation employed, which renders the juices of the plant very watery and the solution of the medicinal matters consequently too dilute. By correcting this fault, and by making the incisions in the poppy capsules when the plant is at a more advanced stage of maturity than is usual, M. Gastinel has found no difficulty in obtaining opium which contains three or four times as much morphine as that of his neighbors. He argues, from this result, that there need be no difficulty in re-establishing the old renown of the Egyptian opium.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Saturday Evening,
March 10, 1866.

GOLD continues to fall. Yesterday it touched 130; to-day it sold as low as 129½, and then rallied, closing at 131½. Government has not sold since the price was 137½, seventeen days ago. The decline of 7 per cent. in so short a period must be ascribed to natural causes—a growing conviction that the currency is going to be reduced, a steady increase of our exports, a constantly developing foreign enquiry for our securities. Among speculators the opinion prevails that still lower figures—say 125—may be touched before midsummer. But, on the other hand, operators who were confident sellers at 137 to 140, are now buyers on the theory that the decline has been excessive. Notwithstanding large short sales by merchants who are trying by this hedging process to protect themselves against loss from a decline in the value of the goods they hold, gold is easy. It can readily be borrowed "flat," and more than once during the week holders had to pay 2 to 3 per cent. for getting it carried. So general is the impression that we are starting on the high road to specie payments, that specie is coming out of hoards on every side, and the enquiry for coin for investment or speculation has almost wholly ceased. It need hardly be added that the decline has gravely affected all the markets for merchandise and produce. A dead dullness pervades the cotton and produce markets. Large quantities of both are held at high prices both here and abroad; holders thus far decline to accept the decline in gold as final, and hold their property above the views of buyers. Should gold react, these parties will have acted wisely. Should it continue to decline, their obstinacy will cost them dear. A continued decline in specie or a tight money market would involve such a panic in cotton, breadstuffs, and provisions as has not been witnessed in this country for many years. In the dry goods trade more suppleness is developed by dealers. Prices have been marked down, both in foreign and domestic goods, to correspond with the decline in gold, and large invoices have been sent to the auction rooms. But neither the concessions of holders nor the apparent peremptory sales have aroused buyers to activity. All classes of people seem to be imbued with the feeling that prices must fall steadily for some time to come, and no one buys more than he absolutely requires. In the language of a shrewd Western man, "a panic is inevitable sooner or later this year, and when it comes goods will sell much lower than they should. Then we shall buy what we want for twelve months' consumption. Till then we shall hold off." At the West the decline in gold is gravely embarrassing speculators and their banks. Many of the national banks are said to have been unduly liberal to buyers of provisions and produce. Such institutions are likely to afford an opportunity of showing how national banks can be wound up under the new law. Exchange has advanced during the week to about 108½ for bankers' bills, still nearly one per cent. below the point at which specie can be safely shipped as a remittance.

Money continues in fair demand at 6 to 7 per cent., the latter being the general rule among brokers, the former the exception. The Sub-Treasury balance has been reduced twelve to fifteen millions; but, as most of this has gone to Washington and points further South, the market here has not felt the effect of the disbursement. It is realized on all hands that no such thing as an active money market can exist so long as the Government owes the public \$118,000,000 payable on demand after ten days, and many persons question the sincerity of Mr. McCulloch's professions of a desire to contract the currency when they note his continued willingness to receive money on call at 5 per cent. interest. Real contraction can only begin when the Government has emancipated itself from the thralldom of the banks—when it has ceased to draw its breath by their suffrance. At present, with \$118,000,000 due to the banks on call, Mr. McCulloch no more dare make money tight for a period of a month than he dare repudiate the interest due on the public debt. Momentary spasms in the money market suit the banks well enough, as they keep money well up to the legal rate and enable lenders to obtain full rates of interest. But a continued and severe stringency, such as would be involved by a persevering course of currency contraction, will not be tolerated by the banks, and cannot be produced so long as they hold the Secretary by the throat through the temporary loan. No further progress has been made in Congress with the finance bill. Rumors of a compromise among the contending parties—a large majority of whom favor currency contraction in the abstract—have been current during the past week, but no positive intelligence on the subject has been received. Parties interested in speculative operations in real estate, merchandise, and stocks have circulated the report that the bill will fail altogether, and that no contraction of the currency will be authorized by the present Congress.

But a sounder opinion is that, after a considerable delay growing out of the antagonistic views of the crude financiers of Congress, a bill will be adopted which may be in harmony with the wishes of the Secretary or may be in accordance with the requirements of Mr. Stevens, but which, in either case, will authorize and direct such a reduction of the national currency as shall develop a general enquiry for legal tender notes and shall compel the national banks to think at least as much of avoiding bankruptcy as of declaring inordinate dividends to their stockholders.

The following table will show the course of prices during the week in the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets:

	March 3.	March 10.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881.....	104 $\frac{1}{2}$	104 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
5-20 Bonds, old.....	103	103
5-20 Bonds of 1865.....	103	103
10-40 Bonds.....	90 $\frac{1}{2}$ exc.	90 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
7-30 Notes, second series.....	99 $\frac{1}{2}$	99 $\frac{1}{2}$
New York Central.....	90 $\frac{1}{2}$	91 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Erie Railway.....	85 $\frac{1}{2}$	82 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Hudson River.....	103	104	1
Reading Railroad.....	98 $\frac{1}{2}$	97 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
Michigan Southern.....	69 $\frac{1}{2}$	74	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Cleveland and Pittsburgh.....	76 $\frac{1}{2}$	75 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
Chicago and North-western.....	26 $\frac{1}{2}$	25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
" " Preferred.....	53 $\frac{1}{2}$	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	1
Chicago and Rock Island.....	105	107 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago.....	90 $\frac{1}{2}$	89 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
Canton.....	44 $\frac{1}{2}$	43 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
Cumberland.....	44 $\frac{1}{2}$	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Mariposa.....	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11	$\frac{1}{2}$
American Gold.....	133 $\frac{1}{2}$	131 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Bankers' Bills on London.....	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$
Call Loans.....	7	7

The course of the stock market this week has been irregular. The "clique" stocks have advanced; other stocks have declined, or have remained stationary. Erie, which has been wholly in the hands of the clique controlled by the veteran director of the road, was made so scarce on Thursday that as much as $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 per cent. was paid for the use of the stock for a single day. With excellent judgment, the veteran director seems to have chosen this moment to sell his stock, and though there is reason to believe that his associates were not made aware of his operations, it would appear that he personally disposed of not less than 30,000 shares on Thursday and Friday. The consequence was a decline in the price from 87 to 81, and the failure of two or three operators who had followed in his wake. Considerable ingenuity was developed in the operation. While he was selling stock through half a dozen brokers, he was also selling "puts" at 81, 82, and 83 on the stock. Most of the buyers of these "puts" bought the stock against them, and it seems to be generally believed that they bought it from him. Gamblers are familiar with operations by which, on losing \$10,000, the operator makes \$25,000. This seems to have been the policy of the Erie director. The clique in Michigan Southern have succeeded in putting up the price to 74. It was understood in the Street that the short interest was so large that it would be comparatively easy to force up the price to 80 or 85. But, judging from the ease with which the stock is borrowed, and the general belief that the clique is going to put up the price somehow or other, it would seem not unlikely that the clique exaggerated the volume of the short interest, and that, when the time comes to corner the shorts, there may be no one to corner. A further advance in the price may be effected, but the ultimate decline will be none the less certain. No one is so sanguine as to expect a dividend this year. The movement in Rock Island continues, the present direction and their opponents bidding against each other for the stock, and will go on until one party or the other discovers that it is beaten and "lets go." Sales were made on Thursday as high as 108 $\frac{1}{2}$ —a price quite disproportionate to the market value of other sound railway stocks. Pittsburgh declines slowly. The clique are said still to hold 25,000 shares of the stock. Reading and Fort Wayne sink, partly from the decline in the earnings and partly from the process of liquidation, which has already commenced on a small scale, and which induces all holders of property to contemplate its conversion into money. Experienced men in Wall Street do not hesitate to predict that for the next year, or perhaps two or three years, nothing will be so good to own as money; that within two years money will buy every description of property that is bought and sold at prices very much lower than those now current; that just as, in 1862-3, when the currency was expanding, the man who made money was the one who ran in debt, and was always buying more than he could pay for, so now, in 1866-7, when the currency is being reduced, the men who make money will be they who take care to owe nothing, and to hold nothing but money, or the funded obligations of Government.

HOME INSURANCE COMPANY OF NEW YORK,

OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.

Cash Capital, - - - - - \$2,000,000 00
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - - - 3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - - 77,901 52

FIRE, MARINE, and INLAND
INSURANCE.

Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.

CHAS. J. MARTIN, PRESIDENT.

A. F. WILMARTH, VICE-PRESIDENT.

JOHN MCGEE, Secretary.

J. H. WASHBURN, Assistant Secretary.

W. C. NICOLL, Superintendent Marine Department.

THE GREAT NATIONAL SAVINGS BANK.

CAPITAL AND ASSETS EXCEEDING \$1,500,000.

THE UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

NEW YORK OFFICE, 151 BROADWAY.

Assets, Nov. 1, 1865,.....\$1,400,777 16
Losses paid to date.....912,342 00
Dividends paid to date.....412,748 00

This is one of the oldest wholly *Mutual* Life Insurance Companies in the United States, and has been uniformly successful, having always made large returns in Cash dividends to all the Policy-holders.

We refer to the following well-known Clergymen who are insured with us:

HENRY WARD BEECHER, R. S. STORRS, JR., HENRY ASHTON, W. P. STRICKLAND,

and are allowed to make the following extract from a private letter of the Rev. W. P. Strickland, D.D., as follows:

From what I know of the Union Mutual Life Insurance Company, 151 Broadway, where I am insured for \$5,000, I believe that the Company is placed upon an immovable foundation; that its officers and agents are competent and honest, that it will faithfully and promptly meet all its covenants. I make this statement without any compensation, and without any hope of fees or reward whatever.
Brooklyn, July 31, 1865. W. P. STRICKLAND.

We invite careful attention to our table No. IV.,

"Non-forfeiture Endowment,"

being peculiarly adapted to those on salary.

Efficient agents are wanted.

J. W. & H. JUDD,

General Agents for New York and New Jersey.

PACIFIC MUTUAL INSURANCE COMPANY,

TRINITY BUILDING, 111 BROADWAY.

ASSETS, JANUARY 1, 1866, - - - - - \$1,164,380

DIVIDEND, TWENTY PER CENT.

This Company ensures against MARINE and INLAND Navigation Risks on Cargo and Freight.

No Time Risks or Risks upon Hulls of Vessels are taken.

The Profits of the Company ascertained from January 10, 1855, to January 1, 1865, for which certificates were issued, amount to.....\$1,707,310
Additional profits from January 1, 1865, to January 1, 1866.....189,034

Total profit for eleven years.....\$1,896,344
The certificates previous to 1863 have been redeemed in cash. 1,107,340

NEW YORK, Feb. 20, 1866.

ALFRED EDWARDS, President.
WILLIAM LECONY, Vice-President.

THOMAS HALE, Secretary.

1866.
TWENTY-THIRD ANNUAL REPORT
 OF THE
MUTUAL
LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

OF NEW YORK,

For the year ending January 31, 1866.

FREDERICK S. WINSTON, PRESIDENT.

OFFICE,

144 AND 146 BROADWAY,
 Corner of Liberty Street.

CASH ASSETS, FEB. 1, 1866:

\$14,885,278 88.

Number of Policies issued in 1865, 8,600, ensuring	\$31,394,407 00
In force February 1, 1866, 25,797 Policies, ensuring	83,413,933 00
Dividend Addition to same,	7,830,925 92
	\$91,244,858 92

STATEMENT FOR YEAR.

JANUARY 31, 1866.

The Net Assets, February 1, 1865, **\$11,790,414 68**

RECEIPTS DURING THE YEAR.

For premiums and policy fees:		
Original on new policies.....	\$1,154,066 94	
Renewals.....	1,818,664 82	
War extras and annuities.....	15,428 64	\$2,988,150 40
Interest:		
On bonds and mortgages.....	961,752 88	
U. S. Stocks.....	352,329 62	
Premium on gold.....	94,999 66	809,082 06
Rent.....		55,833 31
		\$2,863,065 50
Total.....		\$15,652,480 48
Disbursements as follows:		
Paid claims by death and additions to same.....	\$712,833 71	
Paid matured Endowment Policies and additions.....	20,999 52	
Paid post-mortem Dividends, Dividends surrendered, and reduction of Premium.....	58,790 87	
Paid surrendered Policies.....	190,691 40	
Paid Annuities.....	10,242 55	
Paid Taxes.....	38,076 52	
Paid Expenses, including Exchange, Postage, Advertising, Medical Examinations, Salaries, Printing, Stationery, and sundry office expenses.....	174,310 94	
Paid Commissions, and for purchase of Commissions accruing on future premiums.....	334,355 13	1,540,130 63

NET CASH ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866.....**\$14,112,349 85**

Invested as follows:

Cash on hand and in Bank.....	\$1,475,899 82
Bonds and Mortgages.....	7,348,622 30
United States Stocks (Cost).....	4,468,921 25
Real Estate.....	782,307 94
Balance due by Agents.....	36,599 14
	\$14,112,349 85

Add:	
Interest accrued, but not due.....	\$112,000 00
Interest due and unpaid.....	5,084 73
Deferred Premiums and Premiums due, but not yet received.....	655,844 90
	772,929 03

GROSS ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866.....**\$14,885,278 88**

INCREASE IN NET CASH ASSETS FOR THE YEAR.....**\$2,312,935 17**

THE GROSS ASSETS OF THE COMPANY ARE THUS APPROPRIATED:

Reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies, including dividend additions to same.....	\$11,503,996 03
Claims ascertained and unpaid (not due).....	122,760 00
Dividend additions to same.....	23,497 64
Post-mortem dividends (unrealized for).....	29,331 73
Premiums paid in advance.....	11,065 48
Undivided Surplus (excluding a margin on the above Reserve of over \$1,000,000).....	218,649 42

DIVIDEND OF 1866.....**\$2,975,388 58**

Gross Assets, Feb. 1, 1866, as above.....**\$14,885,278 88**

N.B.—The reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies and additions (\$11,503,996 03), as above, includes a margin of \$1,000,000 over and above the net values, at four per cent. interest, so that the total undivided surplus exceeds \$1,200,000.

This Company is PURELY MUTUAL, all surplus belonging exclusively to the assured.

ITS CASH ASSETS ARE.....**\$14,885,278 88**

Invested in Bonds and Mortgages in the State of New York, worth nearly the

AMOUNT LOANED; Office Real Estate; Bonds of the State of New York; United States Stock.

No PREMIUM NOTES or Personal Securities are taken or held.

Dividends are declared ANNUALLY, and may be used as CASH in payment of premium, or to increase the amount of insurance.

Policies issued so that the premiums paid will purchase a fixed amount of insurance, non-forfeitable, without further payment of premium.

Policies are bought by the Company at fair and equitable rates.

LIFE, ENDOWMENT, SURVIVORSHIP ANNUITY, and all other approved Policies are issued by this Company.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

FREDERICK S. WINSTON,
 JOHN V. L. PRUYN,
 WILLIAM MOORE,
 ROBERT H. MCCURDY,
 ISAAC GREEN PEARSON,
 WILLIAM BETTS,
 JOHN P. YELVERTON,
 SAMUEL M. CORNELL,
 LUCIUS ROBINSON,
 W. SMITH BROWN,
 ALFRED EDWARDS,
 JOHN WADSWORTH,
 EZRA WHEELER,
 SAMUEL D. BABCOCK,
 WILLIAM H. POPHAM,
 JOHN M. STUART,
 SAMUEL E. SPROULLS,
 RICHARD PATRICK,

HENRY A. SMYTHE,
 DAVID HOADLEY,
 WILLIAM V. BRADY,
 WILLIAM E. DODGE,
 GEORGE S. CTE,
 WILLIAM K. STRONG,
 ALEX. W. BRADFORD,
 WILLIAM M. VERMILYE,
 JOHN E. DEVELIN,
 WILLIAM A. HAINES,
 SEYMOUR L. HUSTED,
 MARTIN BATES,
 WELLINGTON CLAPP,
 OLIVER H. PALMER,
 ALONZO CHILD,
 HENRY E. DAVIES,
 RICHARD A. MCCURDY,
 FRANCIS SKIDDY,

RICHARD A. MCCURDY, VICE-PRESIDENT.

ISAAC ABBATT, }
 THEO. W. MORRIS, } SECRETARIES.

FRED. M. WINSTON, CASHIER.

SHEPPARD HOMANS, }
 ACTUARY.

WILLIAM BETTS, LL.D., }
 HON. LUCIUS ROBINSON, } COUNSEL.
 HON. ALEX. W. BRADFORD, }

MINTURN POST M.D., }
 ISAAC L. KIP, M.D., } MEDICAL EXAMINERS.

F. RATCHFORD STARR, General Agent for the States of Pennsylvania and Delaware,

H. B. MERRELL, General Agent for the States of Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

HALE REMINGTON, General Agent for the New England States, FALL RIVER, MASS.

JNO. G. JENNINGS, General Agent for the State of Ohio, CLEVELAND, O.

JNO. T. CHRISTIE, General Agent for Central New York, TROY, N. Y.

STEPHEN PARKS, General Agent for Western New York, present address TROY, N. Y.

JAMES A. RHODES, General Agent for Southern New York, 157 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

O. F. BRESSEE, General Agent for the State of Virginia, RICHMOND, VA.

L. SPENCER GOBLE, General Agent for the State of New Jersey, NEWARK, N. J.

H. S. HOMANS, General Agent for the State of California, SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

THE MEDICAL EXAMINERS OF THE COMPANY ARE AT THE OFFICE DAILY

FROM 10 A.M. TO 3 P.M.

LIFE AND ACCIDENTS.

THE NATIONAL LIFE

AND

TRAVELLERS' INSURANCE CO.,

243 BROADWAY, NEW YORK,

EDWARD A. JONES, PRESIDENT,

Issues

LIFE POLICIES ON THE PURELY MUTUAL PLAN,

And Ensures Against

ACCIDENTS OF EVERY DESCRIPTION.

It issues two kinds of travelers' tickets, one covering only accidents to the vehicle, and the other every kind of accident. Both pay a weekly compensation in case of accident causing total disability.

Travelling Accidents—For 24 hours, 10 cents for \$3,000, with \$15 per week compensation.

General Accidents—For 24 hours, 25 cents for \$5,000, with \$25 per week compensation.

General Accidents—Yearly Policy, \$25 for \$5,000, with \$25 per week compensation.

WM. E. PRINCE, Vice-President.

A. S. MILLS, Secretary.

T. B. VAN BUREN, Treasurer.

S. TEATS, M.D., Medical Examiner.

J. F. ENTZ, Consulting Actuary.

NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET.

CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO - - - - - **\$1,000,000**

SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865, - - - - - **275,253**

Losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.

CHARTERED 1850.

Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 243 per cent.

P. NOTMAN, Secretary.

JONATHAN D. STEELE, President.

FIRST CLASS FIRE INSURANCE

ON THE PARTICIPATION PLAN.

MARKET FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

87 WALL STREET, CORNER OF JAUNCEY COURT.

CONDITION OF THE COMPANY.

ABSTRACT OF THE ANNUAL REPORT OF DEC. 31, 1864.

TOTAL ASSETS	- - - - -	\$414,739 18
Viz.—Bonds and Mortgages	- - - - -	\$134,673 00
Temporary Loans	- - - - -	92,630 00
Real Estate	- - - - -	10,000 00
100 Shares Mer. Ex. Bank	- - - - -	5,000 00
Government Sec., value	- - - - -	144,514 00
Cash on hand	- - - - -	18,942 34
Interest due	- - - - -	3,085 58
Premiums due	- - - - -	6,785 26
PRESENT LIABILITIES	- - - - -	\$15,995 92
NET SURPLUS	- - - - -	198,733 26

This Company will continue, as heretofore, to insure respectable parties against
DISASTER BY FIRE
 At fair and remunerating rates; extending, according to the terms on its Policies, the advantage of the

PARTICIPATION PLAN OF THE COMPANY,

pursued by it for several years past, with such great success and popularity, and profit to its customers: whereby

SEVENTY-FIVE PER CENT.

(75) of the Profits, instead of being withdrawn from the Company in Dividends to Stockholders, is invested as a "SCRIP FUND," and held for greater protection of its Policyholders; and Scrip, bearing interest, is issued to Customers therefor: thus, IN THIS COMPANY, those who furnish the business, AND PAY THE PREMIUMS, derive the largest share of advantages; and when the accumulations of the SCRIP FUND shall exceed

FIVE HUNDRED THOUSAND DOLLARS,

the excess will be applied to PAY OFF the Scrip IN CASH in the order of its issue.

The liberal and prompt adjustment of Claims for Loss, WHEN FAIR AND SQUARE, is a specialty with this Company.

NOTE.—This Company does not insure on the hazards of RIVER, LAKE, or INLAND NAVIGATION; confining itself strictly to a legitimate FIRE INSURANCE BUSINESS.

H. P. FREEMAN, Secretary.

JAY COOKE,
 WM. G. MOORHEAD,
 H. D. COOKE,

H. C. FAHNESTOCK,
 EDWARD DODGE,
 PITT COOKE.

JAY COOKE & CO.,

BANKERS.

In connection with our houses in Philadelphia and Washington, we have this day opened an office at No. 1 Nassau Street, corner of Wall Street, in this city.

Mr. EDWARD DODGE, late of Clark, Dodge & Co., New York, Mr. H. C. FAHNESTOCK, of our Washington House, and Mr. PITT COOKE, of Sandusky, Ohio, will be resident partners.

We shall give particular attention to the PURCHASE, SALE, AND EXCHANGE OF GOVERNMENT SECURITIES of all issues: to orders for purchase and sale of STOCKS, BONDS, AND GOLD, and to all business of National Banks.

JAY COOKE & CO.

MARCH 1, 1866.

PHENIX INSURANCE COMPANY,

BROOKLYN, N. Y.

OFFICES, 1 COURT STREET, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

" 139 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

CASH CAPITAL	- - - - -	\$1,000,000 00
ASSETS	- - - - -	1,500,000 00

Insurance against Loss by Fire, Marine, Lake, Canal, and Inland Transportation.

STEPHEN CROWELL, President. EDGAR W. CROWELL, Vice-President.
 PHILANDER SHAW, Secretary.

Insurance Scrip.**WILLIAM C. GILMAN,**

46 PINE STREET, NEW YORK,

BUYS AND SELLS INSURANCE SCRIP.

Copartnership Notice.

The undersigned have associated, under the firm title of OLMSTED, VAUX & CO., for the business of furnishing Designs and Superintendence for Buildings and Grounds, and other Architectural and Engineering Works, including the Laying-out of Towns, Villages, Parks, Cemeteries, and Gardens.

110 Broadway,
 New York, January 1, 1866.

FRED. LAW OLMSTED,
 CALVERT VAUX,
 FRED'K C. WITHERS.

FRANCIS & LOUTREL,

45 MAIDEN LANE, NEW YORK,

STATIONERS, STEAM PRINTERS,AND
BLANK-BOOK MANUFACTURERS.

Supply everything in their line at lowest prices. Every kind of Writing Paper, Account Books, Fancy and Staple Stationery, Diaries for 1866, Expense Books, etc. Orders solicited.

FINKLE & LYON'S

IMPROVED

LOOK-STITCH SEWING-MACHINE.

N. B.—Money refunded if the Machine is not preferred to any in market for family use.

AGENTS WANTED.

838 Broadway, N. Y.

THE**MORRIS FIRE AND INLAND INSURANCE COMPANY,**

COLUMBIAN BUILDING, 1 NASSAU STREET.

JUNE 1, 1865.

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL, \$5,000,000.

CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, \$885,040 57.

POLICIES OF INSURANCE AGAINST LOSS OR DAMAGE BY FIRE

Issued on the most Favorable Terms.

EDWARD A. STANSBURY, President.

ABRAM M. KIRBY, Vice-President.

ELLIS R. THOMAS, Secretary.

FOURTH NATIONAL BANK,

27 & 29 PINE ST., NEW YORK,

Has for sale U. S. 7-10 Notes, all sizes; also, One Year Certificates and all other Government Loans.

P. C. CALHOUN, President.

B. SEAMAN, Cashier.

ANTHONY LANE, Asst. Cashier.

The Nation:

A Weekly Journal of Politics, Literature, Science, and Art.

THIS journal will not be the organ of any party, sect, or body. It will, on the contrary, make an earnest effort to bring to the discussion of political and social questions a really critical spirit, and to wage war upon the vices of violence, exaggeration, and misrepresentation by which so much of the political writing of the day is marred.

The criticism of books and works of art will form one of its most prominent features; and pains will be taken to have this task performed in every case by writers possessing special qualifications for it.

It is intended, in the interest of investors, as well as of the public generally, to have questions of trade and finance treated every week by a writer whose position and character will give his articles an exceptional value, and render them a safe and trustworthy guide.

A special correspondent, who has been selected for his work with care, is pursuing a journey through the South. His letters appear every week, and he is charged with the duty of simply reporting what he sees and hears, leaving the public as far as possible to draw its own inferences.

TERMS:—Six Dollars per annum, in advance; Six months, Four Dollars. When delivered by Carrier in New York or Brooklyn, Fifty Cents additional.

JOSEPH H. RICHARDS,

PUBLISHER,

130 Nassau Street, N. Y.

DEMULCENT SOAP,

FOR CHAPPED AND TENDER HANDS,
FOR TOILET AND BATH USE.

MANUFACTURED ONLY BY

J. C. HULL'S SON,

32 PARK ROW, N. Y.

Upwards of 100 styles of Toilet and Staple Soaps. For sale
by all Dealers.

Improvements in Piano-fortes.

One of the simplest and most truly valuable improvements yet made in the Piano-forte is that invented and patented by

DECKER BROTHERS, 91 BLEECKER STREET,

in this city. By correcting the only imperfections arising from the use of the full iron-plate, and that, too, by not detracting in the slightest degree from its many positive advantages, the Messrs. DECKER have developed in their instruments a tone at once admirable for its purity, fulness, prolongation, and sweetness, and the high estimation in which their improvement is held is well shown in the rapidly increasing business of their firm.—*Tribune*.

MARVIN'S**PATENT FIRE AND BURGLAR SAFE**

Superior to any others in the following particulars:
They are more fire-proof.
They are more burglar-proof.
They are perfectly dry.
They do not lose their fire-proof qualities by age.
Manufactured only by

MARVIN & CO., 265 Broadway.

731 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

Send for a descriptive Circular.

Make Your Own Soap with B. T. BABBITT'S Potash, in tin cans, 70 Washington Street, New York. Pure Concentrated Potash or Ready Soap Maker. Warranted double the strength of common Potash, and superior to any other saponifier or lye in the market. Put up in cans of one pound, two pounds, three pounds, six pounds, and twelve pounds, with full directions in English and German for making Hard and Soft Soap. One pound will make fifteen gallons of Soft Soap. No lime is required. Consumers will find this the cheapest Potash in market.

B. T. BABBITT,

64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, and 74 Washington St., N. Y.

WHEELER & WILSON'S SEWING MACHINES,

625 BROADWAY, N. Y.,

MAKE THE

LOCK-STITCH,

and rank highest on account of the elasticity, permanence, beauty, and general desirableness of the stitching, when done, and the wide range of its application.—*Report of American Institute*.

Lock-Stitch Sewing Machines

FOR FAMILIES AND MANUFACTURERS.

THE HOWE MACHINE COMPANY,

ELIAS HOWE, Jr., Pres.,

629 BROADWAY.

Agents wanted.

Saleratus.—B. T. BABBITT'S SALERATUS, 70 Washington Street, N. Y. If you want healthy bread, use B. T. Babbitt's best medicinal Saleratus, made from common salt. Bread made with this Saleratus contains, when baked, nothing but common salt, water, and flour. B. T. BABBITT, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, and 74 Washington Street, N. Y.

Economical Housekeepers Use

PLYLE'S SALERATUS. | PYLE'S O. K. SOAP.
PLYLE'S CREAM TARTAR. | PYLE'S BLUEING POWDER.

Articles designed for all who want the best goods, full weight. Sold by best Grocers everywhere. Each package bears the name of JAMES PYLE, Manufacturer, New York.

The Horace Waters

Grand, Square, and Upright PIANOS, MELODEONS, HARMONIUMS, and CABINET ORGANS. Wholesale and retail, at reduced prices. To let, and rent allowed if purchased. Monthly payments received for the same. Second-hand Pianos at bargain, prices \$60, \$75, \$100, \$125, \$150, \$175, \$200, and \$225. Factory and Warerooms, 481 Broadway. Cash paid for second-hand Pianos.

UNIVERSAL CLOTHES WRINGER,
WITH COG-WHEELS.

The World's Fair in London, the Mechanics' Institute, and Eleven State Fairs have decided that
the U. C. W. IS THE BEST.

We also WARRANT IT THE BEST and most durable Wringer made. Over 200,000 have been sold, and each family can testify to its superior merits.

"It saves its cost in clothing every year."—ORANGE JUDD.

"One of the most useful articles in my house."—MRS. HENRY WARD BEECHER.

"I heartily commend it."—REV. DR. BELLINGS.

Call or send for illustrated circular, with testimonials, retail prices, and terms to salesmen.

Money can be made rapidly selling them in every town.

R. C. BROWNING, GENERAL AGENT,

32 Cortlandt Street, New York.

WILLIAM KNABE & CO.'S

Celebrated Gold Medal

GRAND,

SQUARE,

AND

UPRIGHT

PIANOS.

These instruments have been for thirty years before the public, in competition with other instruments of first class makers. They have, throughout that long period, maintained their reputation among the profession and the public as being unsurpassed in every quality found in a first-class Piano.

650 BROADWAY,

AND

CROSBY'S OPERA HOUSE, CHICAGO, ILL.

J. BAUER & CO., Agents.

THE BEST SEWING-MACHINES IN THE WORLD.**THE WEED MACHINES,**

With all their valuable improvements, entirely overcome all imperfections. They are superior to all others for family and manufacturing purposes, simple in construction, durable in all their parts, and readily understood. They have certainty of stitch on all kinds of fabrics, and are adapted to a wide range of work without change or adjustment, using all kinds of thread. Will hem, fell, bind, gather, braid, tuck, quilt, cord, and, in fact, do all kinds of work required by families or manufacturers. We invite all persons in search of an instrument to execute any kind of sewing now done by machinery to inspect them, and recommend all parties engaging in the sale of sewing-machines to make sure they secure the best by examining the WEED before purchasing. They make the shuttle-stitch, which cannot be excelled for firmness, elasticity, durability, and elegance of finish. They have received the highest premiums in every instance where they have been exhibited in competition with other standard machines. The company being duly licensed, the machines are protected against infringements or litigation.

Reliable agents wanted, to whom we offer great inducements. Every explanation will be cheerfully given to all, whether they wish to purchase or not. Descriptive circulars, together with specimens of their work, will be furnished to all who desire them by mail or otherwise.

WEED SEWING-MACHINE CO.,

STORE, 506 BROADWAY, N. Y.

A Great Reduction in the Prices

of English Brussels Carpeting at HIRSH ANDERSON'S, 99 Bowery. Also Imp. 3 Ply and Superfine Ingrain Carpets, Rugs, Mats, Matting, Table and Piano Covers, Window Shades, etc.

N. B.—White and checked Mattings at 40 cents per yard. Look for 99 Bowery, N. Y.

HOME FOR INVALIDS,

ESTABLISHED IN 1847.

BY E. E. DENNISTON, M.D.,

At Springdale, Northampton, Mass. Number limited to Forty.

Aware of the principles Dr. Denniston proposes conducting it upon, we are induced to recommend his establishment for the treatment of Chronic Diseases of various kinds. We believe it contains all the advantages of similar establishments, and have confidence in the skill and judgment, experience and prudence, of Dr. D. to direct the application of the various remedial treatment according to the exigencies of the individual cases.

J. C. Warren, M.D., John Ware, M.D.,
Geo. Hayward, M.D., J. M. Warren, M.D.,
Edw. Reynolds, M.D., M. I. Perry, M.D.,
Jacob Bigelow, M.D., J. Homans, M.D.,
Boston, February 29, 1848.

Reference—New York, Willard Parker, M.D.
Brooklyn, C. L. Mitchell, M.D.

RAVEN & BACON'S PIANO-FORTES.

(ESTABLISHED 1829.)

A full assortment of these Instruments, which have been well known in the New York market for more than thirty years, constantly on hand. We are continually adding improvements to our Pianos, and our facilities enable us to furnish them at terms and prices satisfactory to purchasers. Pictorial circulars sent by mail.

Wareroom, 135 Grand St., near Broadway, New York.

DECKER & CO.,**MANUFACTURERS OF PIANO-FORTES,**

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